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ABSTRACT

These two journal issues include the following articles: "Assistant Foreign Language Teachers in Japanese High Schools: Focus on the Hosting of Japanese Teachers" (Great Gorsuch); "Communicative Language Teaching (Organizational Effectiveness of Upper Secondary School English Language Departments and Their Commitment toward Communicative Language Teaching)" (Naoto Yamamori); "Teachers' Beliefs and Corrective Feedback" (Reiko Mori); "Japanese High School EFL Learners' Note-Taking Strategies" (Hiroaki Maeda); "Sexism in Japanese Radio Business English Program Textbooks" (Sumie Matsuno); "The Eiken Vocabulary Section: An Analysis and Recommendations for Change" (Tsuyuki Miura and David Beglar); "The Effect of Three Types of Written Feedback on Student Motivation" (Peter M. Duppenthaler); "Learner Beliefs in Language Learning in the CALL Environment" (Yukinari Shimoyama, Takamichi Isoda, and Koyo Yamamori); "Experiential Learning Theory: Foreign Language Learning Style of Japanese University Students and Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory" (Yuko Fujita); "Representation of Users and Uses of English in Beginning Japanese EFL Textbooks" (Aya Matsuda); and "An Algorithmic Approach to Error Correction: Correcting Three Common Errors at Different Levels" (Alice Y.W. Chan, Becky S.C. Kwan, and David C.S. Li). The journals also contain book reviews: "Curriculum Development in Language Teaching" by Jack C. Richards (Terry Vanderveen); "Teachers' Voices 7: Teaching Vocabulary" by Anne Burns and Helen de Silva Joyce, Eds. (Keiko Sakui); "Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning" by Phil Benson (Mika Maruyama and Joseph Falout); "Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching, Second Edition" by Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers (Thomas C. Anderson); and "Historical

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全国語学教育学会

Japan Association for Language Teaching

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Japan Association for Language Teaching
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The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of more than 3,500 language teachers. There are 39 JALT chapters in Japan, one affiliate chapter, 13 Special Interest Groups (SIGs), three affiliate SIGs, and three forming SIGs. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) and is a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

JALT publishes *JALT Journal*, a semiannual research journal; *The Language Teacher*, a monthly magazine containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and *JALT International Conference Proceedings*.

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually and offers over 300 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Local meetings are held by each JALT chapter and JALT's SIGs provide information on specific concerns. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes, and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning.

Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes enrollment in the nearest chapter, copies of JALT publications, and reduced admission to JALT-sponsored events. JALT members can join as many SIGs as they wish for an annual fee of ¥1,500 per SIG. For information, contact the JALT Central Office.

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In this Issue

Articles

The main section of this issue contains three articles. **Greta Gorsuch** examines Japanese teachers of English and their attitudes towards team teaching with assistant English teachers (ALTs). The author also outlines patterns of ALT assignment to provide a more complete picture of the JET program. **Naoto Yamamori** takes a look at upper secondary school English language departments' organizational effectiveness and their commitment to Communicative Language Teaching. **Reiko Mori** investigates how teachers' beliefs are manifested in their application of corrective feedback in her case studies of two English teachers. **Hiroaki Maeda** focuses on Japanese high school students' note-taking strategies using a questionnaire providing insights into learner note-taking strategies, instruction, and mental processes.

Perspectives

Sexism in English textbooks used for a Japanese business English radio program is highlighted in a Perspectives article by **Sumie Matsuno,** who concludes that this problem still needs attention and that teachers should reexamine their textbooks with this in mind.

Reviews

Curriculum development is covered in a review by **Terry Vanderveen.**

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From the Editors

The editors would like to welcome David Beglar and Gordon Robson to the *JALT Journal* Editorial Advisory Board. We appreciate the generous contribution of their time to help ensure the continued high quality of our publication.

Conference News

The Third Symposium on Second Language Writing will be held on October 11-12, 2002 at Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana, USA. This year's Symposium, entitled "Constructing Knowledge: Approaches to Inquiry in Second Language Writing," will feature sixteen scholars who will explore various ways in which knowledge is constructed, transformed, disseminated, and negotiated in the field of second language writing. Presenters will include: Dwight Atkinson, Linda Lonon Blanton, Colleen Brice, Christine Pearson Casanave, Dana Ferris, John Flowerdew, Richard Haswell, Sarah Hudelson, Ken Hyland, Xiaoming Li, Rosa Manchon, Paul Kei Matsuda, Susan Parks, Miyuki Sasaki, Tony Silva, and Bob Weissberg. For more information, please visit: <http://icdweb.cc.purdue.edu/~silvat/symposium/2002/>.

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Articles

Assistant Foreign Language Teachers in Japanese High Schools: Focus on the Hosting of Japanese Teachers

Greta Gorsuch
Texas Tech University

For both political and social reasons, the learning of English as a Foreign Language in Japanese secondary schools has become the focus of a variety of new educational policies applied at a national level. The backdrop of this article is the JET program, which in 1998 employed 5,361 assistant language teachers (ALTs) from various countries for the purpose of team teaching in Japanese junior and senior high school foreign language classrooms. The article focuses on Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and their responses to team teaching with ALTs, particularly in terms of JTEs' perceptions of their own English speaking skills and English language learning experiences. Drawing from the questionnaire responses of 884 JTEs in high schools in nine randomly selected prefectures, the author also outlines patterns in assignment of ALTs in both academic and vocational high schools, providing a more complete picture of the JET program.

日本の高校における外国語としての英語教育は、政治的、社会的な理由により、全国規模で新たな教育政策の流れに組み込まれようとしている。本稿は、1998年に中学・高等学校の外国語クラスにティームティーチングの一員として様々な国から雇い入れられた5,361名のJETプログラムの語学助手（ALT）の扱いを取り上げ、日本人英語教師（JTE）の、ALTとのティームティーチングにおける反応、特にJTEが自身の英語の話し方能力と英語学習経験についてどのように考えているのかを検証する。任意に選んだ９つの県の中・高校で教える884人のJTEの質問用紙への回答から、進学校と商業高校の両方で、ALTがどのような仕事を割り当てられているのかを明らかにし、JETプログラムの全体像が解明できることを目指した。

For both political and social reasons, the learning of English as a Foreign Language in Japanese secondary schools has become the focus of a variety of new educational policies applied at a national level in Japan. Among these has been the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) program, started in 1987, which has brought native English speaking "assistant language teachers" (ALTs) into Japanese junior and senior high school English classes (McConnell, 1995; Wada & Cominos, 1994). The overt purpose of the JET program is to have the ALTs and Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) interact in English, raise JTEs' awareness of English as a communicative medium, and promote communicative English teaching in the classroom (Wada & Cominos, 1994, p. 1). As such, the JET program offers a powerful potential for instructional change among Japanese teachers of English. The JET program is well endowed, with an annual operating budget of US$222,000,000 (McConnell, 1995), and employs 5,361 ALTs from numerous countries ("JET program," 1998).

In 1989, the Ministry of Education issued a new set of curriculum guidelines and course descriptions for the instruction of English in high schools, called *The Course of Study* (Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture , 1992). *The Course of Study* was intended to promote development of students' communicative skills (Council on the School Curriculum, in Wada, 1994, p. 9). In high schools, the objectives of the two required mainstay four-skills English courses, English I and English II, were written to include guidelines to be used to promote students' listening and speaking abilities, and to instill a "positive attitude towards communicating in English" in high school students (Ministry of Education, Culture, & Science, 1992, p. 3). This was the first time, in the course of many periodically issued national curriculum guidelines for foreign languages, that "communication" was named as a goal of instruction. Explicit mention was made in *The Course of Study* that JTEs should use team teaching activities, which implies the presence and cooperation of ALTs.

Given the conservative leanings of the Japanese education sector (Lincicome, 1993), the JET program, along with the new *Course of Study*, represent radical policies applied on a national level. However, there are several obvious aspects of the Japanese high school educational culture that work against JTEs' acceptance of classroom activities designed to promote students' communicative abilities (McConnell, 1995; see also Gorsuch, 2001, who cites the prevalence of non-communicative pedagogies and university entrance exams, as well as inadequate teacher preparation and in-service programs). These aspects of Japa-

nese education imply a mismatch between the official plan and the realities of Japanese high school EFL education.

As the local implementers of the JET program, JTEs are major stakeholders in this ambitious educational policy. Nevertheless, the potential effects of ALTs on JTEs, who are often entrusted with the supervision of ALTs and the team teaching process, do not seem to have been explored on a large scale. Specifically, this study focused on comparing teachers who taught English I or II regularly with ALTs with teachers who had zero or had limited ALT contact in their English I or II classes. Using a Japanese-language survey, 884 teachers from these three groups were asked to provide ratings on their own classroom English speaking ability, self-reports of early English learning experiences, and attitudes towards teaching activities associated with communicative language teaching, audiolingualism, and *yakudoku* (a traditional Japanese grammar-translation methodology).

Construction of the Survey

Accounting for Two Influences

Frameworks for investigating the effects of governance on teachers' instruction provided an important way of organizing the collection of data of the survey. In the literature, influences on classroom instruction are classified into what can best be termed formal influences and informal influences (Cohen & Spillane, 1992; Fuller, Snyder, Chapman, & Hua 1994; Montero-Sieburth, 1992; Stevenson & Baker, 1991). See Table 1 for a summary of formal and informal instructional guidance.

Two of the categories in Table 1 were used to create the survey items of interest in this report: teachers' foreign language proficiency and teachers' previous educational experiences. Items created from other categories in Table 1 were also included in the survey, but are beyond the scope of this report.

Teachers' English Proficiency

Historically, teachers have not needed to be proficient to teach English in Japanese high schools. After World War II, procedures for high school teacher certification were greatly liberalized. One of the reasons for this was an increased demand for English teachers after the end of the war (Henrichsen, 1989, p. 126). Another reason, according to Shimahara (1995), was to nullify rigid pre-war teacher education traditions, which were seen as a tool by militarists to gain control over schools and students. The idea was to open teacher certification to

graduates of liberal arts universities who would be less swayed by authoritarian ideals. Thus, students getting degrees in English literature could get an English teacher's certificate by simply completing the requirements. However, according to Henrichsen (1989, p. 126), this led to the hiring of teachers who were not particularly knowledgeable of English. In addition to English literature majors who had probably never had to speak English in their university courses, graduates who had majored "in some subject *other than English* but had received passing marks in their English classes...were put into English-teaching positions" (p. 162, emphasis in the original). This helped to create teachers who had studied English in the written mode and who then neglected oral/aural skills (Henrichsen, 1989). The implementation of the JET program may be changing that, at least for JTEs who have contact with ALTs. In the survey used to generate data for this report, teachers were asked to gauge their level of agreement to the statement: "My English speaking ability is good enough for me to use in class." A response of "1" meant strong disagreement, while a "5" meant strong agreement, and "3" meant "I don't know."

Table 1: Formal and Informal Influences on Teachers' Instruction

Formal Influences	Informal Influences
Instructional frameworks -curriculum guidelines	Teachers' previous educational experiences -teacher age, gender, hometown, ethnicity nationality, socioeconomic background
Instructional materials -textbooks	Intraschool influences -principals' expectations, classroom structure, teacher sense of control over own work, school climate, collegial expectations, faculty collegiality
Assessment of results -external examinations	Consumer influences -business community, higher education, students' families, students' expectations
Monitoring instruction -official observation of teaching	Cultural influences -beliefs about authority, habits of deference, group orientation, tolerance of deviancy
Teacher education -pre- and in-service teacher training	Academic influences -students' abilities, subject matter
	Teachers' abilities -teachers' length of experience, membership in professional associations, teachers' general knowledge of content being taught, teachers' foreign language proficiency
	Previous curriculum influence

Note: Categories adapted from Cohen and Spillane (1992); Fuller, Snyder, Chapman, and Hua (1994); Montero-Sieburth (1992); and Stevenson and Baker (1991).

Previous Educational Experiences

Cohen and Spillane (1992) suggested that of all the influences that can be accounted for, teachers' previous educational experiences have the greatest influence on teachers' eventual instructional practices, going so far as to name elementary and secondary schools as the "prime agencies of teacher education" (p. 26). MacDonald and Rogan (1990) noted that South African science teachers involved in a science education reform project tended to employ teacher-to-whole-class lecture style instruction because they themselves were taught that way. In the end, no matter what educational policies are handed down, teachers' own long "apprenticeship" into teaching (their own educational experiences) (Lortie, 1975, p. 61) will continue to have lasting influence on teachers' instruction (Freeman & Richards, 1993; Kennedy, 1989; Schmidt, Porter, Floden, Freeman, & Schwille, 1987).

For the purposes of this discussion it will be assumed that most high school teachers learned English through *yakudoku*, a non-oral approach to foreign language instruction, thought to be related to grammar/translation (Bryant, 1956; Henrichsen, 1989; Hino, 1988; Law, 1995). A 1983 survey conducted by the Research Group for College English Teaching in Japan (in Hino, 1988, p. 46) reported that among its 1,012 Japanese university and high school teacher respondents nationwide, 70 to 80 percent used *yakudoku* in their EFL reading classes. Given this indirect evidence, it is likely that many current Japanese high school English teachers learned English through *yakudoku* as students. Further, two *yakudoku* high school teachers, aged around 40, reported to Gorsuch (1998) that they had learned English as high school students using *yakudoku*.

A brief description of *yakudoku* instructional practices as reported in Gorsuch (1998) will be given here. In three *yakudoku* English II classes taught at a boys' high school, Gorsuch observed that the students were required to process English texts by translating them into Japanese. The majority of class time was spent on teachers asking individual students to read their Japanese translations of an English sentence, or phrase, out loud. The teachers would then correct the student's Japanese translation, and then comment on the student's apparent misunderstanding of the grammar of the English text. The teachers would write the English grammar point on the board, and complete a lengthy explanation of the structure, often giving students advice on translating the grammar point into appropriate Japanese. The classes were teacher-centered, and conducted in Japanese.

It is not difficult to see the potential problems an ALT might have

team teaching in such a classroom as described above. With the class being conducted almost entirely in Japanese by the JTE, a non-Japanese speaking ALT could not hope to contribute (ALTs hired by the JET program are either newcomers to Japan or may not have been residents in Japan for more than three years, so they may not achieve a high level of competence as Japanese speakers, according to Wada & Cominos, 1994, p. 5). In addition, the goals of such classes clearly do not include improving students' skills in communicating in English. If in fact most JTEs learned English themselves using *yakudoku*, it may be unlikely that many JTEs can accommodate, without a struggle, changes in their teaching implied by the presence of an ALT in the classroom. Yet over 5,000 ALTs are currently teaching in Japanese junior and senior high schools, and a struggle is occurring in many JTEs' working lives (see Yukawa, 1992, 1994 for compelling accounts of this phenomenon). In our survey, teachers were asked to assess their level of agreement with the statement: "As a student I studied English primarily through translating English stories, essays, or literary works into Japanese." A response of "1" meant strong disagreement, while a "5" meant strong agreement, and "3" meant "I don't know."

Attitudes towards CLT, ALM, and Yakudoku Activities

The survey used for the larger study of which this report is a part, used five-point Likert scale items which invited teachers to respond affectively to a series of items representing activities associated with three different approaches to language learning: communicative language teaching (CLT), the audiolingual method (ALM), and *yakudoku*. Over 30 activities were gathered from teaching methodology books and courses and from observations of a variety of Japanese EFL classrooms. The activities were then presented to a panel of eight language educators who had at least a master's degree in TESL. Two were female native speakers of English, two were female native speakers of Japanese, two were male native speakers of English, and two were male native speakers of Japanese. The panel members then categorized each activity as CLT, ALM, or *yakudoku*. Only those activities which panelists unanimously categorized as one of the three types were included in a pilot questionnaire. The activity items were further revised in response to factor analyses of the pilot questionnaire. On the main questionnaire, higher scores of "4" or "5" indicated teachers' approval of the activities, while lower scores of "1" or "2" indicated disapproval of the activities, and "3" meant "I don't know."

Research Questions

The overall purpose of this article is to report data from a survey of 884 Japanese high school EFL teachers in nine randomly selected prefectures. The first two research questions are:

1. According to the JTEs responding to the survey, what are the relative numbers of teachers who teach English I and II at least once a week with an ALT, less than once a week with an ALT, or not at all?
2. What are the patterns of distribution of ALTs team teaching in English I and II classes according to type of school?

These two questions have been included to address a lack of information in the literature concerning the number and distribution of ALTs in English I and II classes. There may be a mistaken perception on the part of researchers inside and outside Japan that ALTs are universally available to team teach with JTEs in Japanese EFL high school classrooms. The final three questions were raised in the literature review of this report. Do JTEs with different levels of ALT contact have different perceptions of themselves? Further, do they have different levels of approval for different kinds of activities, according to their level of ALT contact? Specifically:

3. Do JTEs' self-reports of English speaking ability differ according to their level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes?
4. Do JTEs' self-reports of their own English learning experiences differ according to their level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes?
5. Do JTEs' level of approval of communicative, ALM, and *yakudoku* activities differ according to level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes?

Method

Participants: Creating a Generalizable Sample

The participants for this research were 884 Japanese senior high school EFL teachers currently employed full time at public academic, public vocational, and private academic senior high schools in Japan. Probability sampling procedures were followed (Fowler, 1993; Rea & Parker, 1992, p. 147). The prefectures sampled were: Fukui, Kanagawa, Nagano, Saga, Shizuoka, Tokushima, Toyama, Yamagata, and

Yamaguchi, all of which represent a variety of urban, rural, and geographic contexts.

Private high schools were included in the sample. Due to an exploding population from 1946 to 1980 and a restrictive national policy towards growth in public high school education, a substantial number of private high schools were established by 1980, comprising 28.1% of all high schools in Japan (James & Benjamin, 1988, p. 20). All primarily privately funded high schools were termed "private high schools." National, prefectural, and city-funded schools were termed "public high schools." There was no differentiation, for the purposes of this study, between all boys' and girls' schools, and coeducational schools.

Teachers at public vocational and night high schools were also included. While statistics for numbers of English teachers by type of school could not be found at the national level, combined teachers' lists for the nine prefectures surveyed in this study revealed that Japanese English teachers at public vocational and night high schools still constituted a sizable minority, 783 (13%) of 6,167 teachers at public and private academic and public vocational and night high schools.

Materials

The Japanese-language questionnaire was developed according to results of a pilot questionnaire project of 500 Japanese EFL teachers in Tokyo in 1997, from previous research, and from an extensive literature review (see Gorsuch, 1999a). The theoretical background of the items of interest in this report is discussed in the literature review above. For the English-language version of the questionnaire, see Appendix A. Data that answered research question No. 1 came from item B-3. For research question No. 2, the data came from item B-2. For research question No. 3, the data came from item C-1. To answer research question No. 4, data from item C-2 were examined. Finally, for research question No. 5, data from items A-1 through A-12 were examined.

The questionnaire was translated into Japanese by a highly English proficient Japanese female with teaching experience at the high school and university level. The Japanese version was then back-translated into English by a native English speaking professional translator who specializes in translating Japanese into English. Alpha reliability for items A-1 through A-12 was estimated at .71, which indicates moderate reliability. Reliability for items B-2, B-3, C-1, and C-2 was not estimated because they were designed to capture disparate constructs.

Analyses

The numerical responses on the returned questionnaires were hand coded and entered by the researcher into *Statview 4.5*. To answer research question No. 1, teachers' responses to questionnaire item B-3 (level of involvement with an ALT in English I and II classes) were tabulated. For research question No. 2, teachers' responses to item B-3 were split by type of school (B-2). To determine whether the distribution of ALTs to the three different types of schools was meaningful and not simply a pattern occurring by chance, a chi-square procedure was conducted at $p < .05$. To answer research question No. 3, descriptive statistics of teachers' responses to item C-1 (English speaking ability) were calculated, and were then split by the grouping variable B-3 (JTEs teaching English I and II with an ALT at least once a week, less than once a week, or not at all), resulting in three different mean scores. To determine whether the three resulting means were significantly different, an unbalanced one-way ANOVA procedure was conducted at $p < .05$. To determine whether the data met the assumptions of ANOVA, the data in each of the three cells were checked for normality and for equal variance (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). In the event that the three means were found to be significantly different, the Scheffe test and eta^2 strength of association were calculated to determine how much variance in the data could be attributed to the variable of interest (B-3, in this case). Eta^2 was used because the cells of the ANOVA were unbalanced (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991, p. 331).

To answer research question No. 4, descriptive statistics of teachers' responses to item C-2 (teachers' English learning experiences) were calculated and then split by the grouping variable B-3 (teachers' reported level of involvement with an ALT in English I and II classes), again resulting in three different mean scores. To determine whether the means for the three groups were significantly different, a one-way, unbalanced ANOVA procedure was conducted at $p < .05$. Normality and equivalence of variance for the three cells were checked, and the Scheffe test and eta^2 strength of association were calculated. Finally, to answer research question No. 5, descriptive statistics for items A-1 through A-12 (teachers' level of approval of communicative, ALM, and *yakudoku* activities) were calculated and then split by the grouping variable B-3. Items A-1 through A-12 were twelve dependent variables, and B-3 was the independent variable. To determine whether the means for the twelve items were significantly different, twelve separate one-way, unbalanced ANOVA procedures were conducted at $p < .0042$ (.05 divided by 12 for 12 comparisons; this was done to adjust for the multiple com-

parisons and avoid Type I error assuming a significant difference in means, when in fact the difference is not significant, see Vogt, 1999, pp. 28-29). Normality and equivalence of variance for the three cells of each dependent variable were checked, and the Scheffe test and eta^2 strength of association were calculated.

Results

The numbers of JTEs responding to the survey who were categorized into three groups according to level of ALT contact in English I and II classes appear in Table 2.

Table 2: JTEs' Reported ALT Contact in English I and II Classes

Group	Number	Percent
Teaches at least once a week with an ALT.	179	20%
Teaches less than once a week with an ALT.	167	19%
Does not teach with an ALT.	538	61%
Total	884	100%

Note: Percentages have been rounded.

The largest group of JTEs responding to this survey (n = 538, or 61% of all respondents) reported that they did not teach English I and II with an ALT. The second largest group reported teaching with ALTs at least once a week (n = 179, or 20%), and the smallest group reported teaching with ALTs less than once a week (n = 167, or 19%).

The distribution of ALTs split by type of school (public academic, public vocational, and private academic) suggested that ALTs are not distributed equally. In Table 3, the observed (actual) frequencies are displayed along with expected frequencies (random frequencies that are predicted in chi square distributions, see Vogt, 1999, pp. 39-40). The chi-square statistic for the data was significant at $p < .05$ (chi square = 123.067, df = 4). This means that the patterns in the grouping of teachers in the actual data are significantly different from what a random pattern would suggest. For instance, private academic high school JTEs reported not teaching with ALTs in English I and II classes more than expected (229 compared with 159). Private academic high school JTEs also reported teaching with ALTs less than expected (26 compared with

Table 3: Observed and Expected Frequencies for Distribution of ALTs in English I and II Classes by Type of School

	Observed (Actual) Frequencies			
	Teach with ALT at least once a week.	Teach with ALT less than once a week.	Do not teach with an ALT.	Total
Public Academic Teachers	72	91	179	342
Public Vocational Teachers	81	70	130	281
Private Academic Teachers	26	6	229	261
Total	179	167	538	884
	Expected Frequencies (frequencies which would occur by chance)			
	Teach with ALT at least once a week.	Teach with ALT less than once a week.	Do not teach with an ALT.	Total
Public Academic Teachers	69	65	208	342
Public Vocational Teachers	57	53	171	281
Private Academic Teachers	53	49	159	261
Total	179	167	538	884

Note: Numbers have been rounded.

53, and 6 compared with 49). ALTs are apparently not assigned toteam teach with JTEs in English I and II classes in private academic high schools very often. JTEs at public academic high schools reported teaching with an ALT more than expected (72 compared with 69, and 91 compared with 65), and not teaching with ALTs less than expected (179 compared with 208). Public vocational JTEs reported teaching English I and II with ALTs more than expected (81 compared with 57, and 70 compared with 53). In addition, they reported not teaching with an ALT fewer times than expected (130 compared with 171). Public academic and vocational high schools apparently assign ALTs to team-teach English I and II classes more than random chance would suggest.

Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics for item C-1 (teachers' ratings of their English speaking ability) split by the grouping variable B-3 (level of involvement with an ALT in English I and II classes).

Table 4: JTEs' Self-Reports of English Speaking Ability

	M	*SD*	Min/Max	Skew	Kurtosis
Teaches English I or II with an ALT at least once a week	3.520	.887	1/5	-.300	-.271
Teaches English I or II with an ALT less than once a week	3.126	.856	1/5	.100	-.188
Does not teach English I or II with an ALT	3.102	.889	1/5	-.027	-.608
Total	3.191	.898	1/5	-.047	-.517

Note: A rating of "5" indicates strong agreement with the statement: "My English speaking ability is good enough for me to use in class," and "1" indicates strong disagreement.

Teachers who reported teaching with ALTs at least once a week had a higher mean score (3.520), indicating a higher self rating of their English ability as used in class. Teachers who reported teaching with ALTs less than once a week or not at all had lower mean scores (3.126 and 3.102, respectively). The difference in means was statistically significant at $p < .05$ ($F = 15.532$, $df = 2$). A post hoc Scheffe test indicated that the mean score of teachers teaching with ALTs at least once a week was significantly higher than the mean for teachers teaching less than a week with an ALT, or not teaching with an ALT. However, the eta^2 statistic indicated that only .046 (4.6%) of the variance in the three mean scores was due to the ALT contact variable. This may be due to the presence of other variables in the data, for example JTEs' type of school, length of career, or perhaps intra-school politics or collegial attitudes. Some respondents may have also been unwilling to answer the question, which may have resulted in systematically lower or higher self-estimates, depending on other personal variables not captured by the questionnaire (Gorsuch, 2000).

Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics for item C-2 (teachers' agreement that they had learned English through *yakudoku*) split by the grouping variable B-3 (level of involvement with an ALT in English I and II classes).

Table 5: JTEs' Self-Reports of English Language Learning Experiences

	M	*SD*	Min/Max	Skew	Kurtosis
Teaches English I or II with an ALT at least once a week	3.291	1.106	1/5	-.368	-.678
Teaches English I or II with an ALT less than once a week	3.545	1.104	1/5	.608	-.362
Does not teach English I or II with an ALT	3.414	1.175	1/5	-.496	-.714
Total	3.414	1.151	1/5	-.489	-.657

Note: A rating of "5" indicates strong agreement with the statement: "As a student I studied English primarily through translating English stories, essays, or literary works into Japanese," and "1" indicates strong disagreement.

The results of the data suggested that JTEs with extensive contact with ALTs had a lower level of agreement with the notion that they had studied English through traditional grammar-translation methods (3.291) than JTEs with limited (3.545) or no ALT contact (3.414). However, a one-way ANOVA with the *p* value set at .05 indicated that the differences between the means were not statistically significant.

The descriptive statistics for items A-1 through A-12 (JTEs' approval of CLT, ALM, and *yakudoku* activities) split by the grouping variable B-3 (level of involvement with an ALT in English I and II classes) are in Table 6.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics for Activities Items Split by Level of Involvement with an ALT

Item	Activity type	Group	*M*	*SD*	Min/Max	Skew	Kurtosis
A-1	*Yakudoku*	Total	3.466	.955	1/5	-.593	-.141
		1	3.285	.976	1/5	-.414	-.491
		2	3.491	.934	1/5	-.723	.042
		3	3.519	.947	1/5	-.618	-.031
A-2	Communicative	Total	3.372	.907	1/5	-.501	.073
		1	3.425	1.067	1/5	-.548	-.170
		2	3.515	.757	1/5	-.423	.120
		3	3.310	.885	1/5	-.470	-.021
A-3	Communicative	Total	3.656	.903	1/5	-.613	.165
		1	3.883	.953	1/5	-.888	.598
		2	3.886	.738	2/5	-.354	-.023
		3	3.509	.903	1/5	-.558	-.018

Table 6 (Continued)

Item	Activity type	Group	*M*	*SD*	Min/Max	Skew	Kurtosis
A-4	*Yakudoku*	Total	3.084	1.068	1/5	-.295	-.735
		1	2.922	1.070	1/5	-.200	-.729
		2	3.072	1.012	1/5	-.109	-.718
		3	3.141	1.078	1/5	-.381	-.724
A-5	Audiolingual	Total	3.769	.849	1/5	-.807	.825
		1	3.726	.844	1/5	-.674	.730
		2	3.677	.857	1/5	-.643	.314
		3	3.812	.845	1/5	-.910	1.084
A-6	Audiolingual	Total	3.615	.807	1/5	-.578	-.008
		1	3.508	.912	1/5	-.379	-.598
		2	3.611	.749	2/5	-.595	-.014
		3	3.652	.783	1/5	-.628	.232
A-7	Communicative	Total	3.361	.890	1/5	-.386	-.271
		1	3.441	.928	1/5	-.479	-.265
		2	3.419	.891	1/5	-.365	-.445
		3	3.316	.873	1/5	-.374	-.206
A-8	Audiolingual	Total	3.572	.836	1/5	-.583	.274
		1	3.626	.852	1/5	-.774	.796
		2	3.623	.809	1/5	-.706	.557
		3	3.539	.838	1/5	-.484	.048
A-9	Communicative	Total	3.376	.945	1/5	-.351	-.329
		1	3.497	1.005	1/5	-.521	-.293
		2	3.383	.914	1/5	-.218	-.768
		3	3.333	.930	1/5	-.345	-.199
A-10	*Yakudoku*	Total	3.542	.829	1/5	-.824	.585
		1	3.508	.855	1/5	-.805	.656
		2	3.581	.776	1/5	-.654	.247
		3	3.541	.836	1/5	-.865	.587
A-11	Communicative	Total	3.888	.738	1/5	-1.034	2.404
		1	3.911	.757	1/5	-1.164	3.240
		2	3.964	.656	2/5	-.218	.045
		3	3.857	.754	1/5	-1.136	2.362
A-12	Communicative	Total	3.890	.766	1/5	-1.172	2.525
		1	3.872	.755	1/5	-1.107	2.209
		2	3.916	.669	2/5	-.501	.711
		3	3.888	.796	1/5	-1.299	2.750

Note: Group 1 = teachers teaching with ALTs at least once a week; Group 2 = teachers teaching with ALTs less than once a week; Group 3 = teachers not teaching with ALTs.

Twelve ANOVA procedures were carried out, each with the p value set at .0042. Only one item, A-3, a CLT information gap item calling on students to speak and listen, was significant at $p < .0042$ ($F = 18.865$, $df = 2$). A post hoc Scheffe test indicated that teachers teaching with an ALT at least once a week (3.883) and less than once a week (3.886) were more approving of the CLT activity than teachers with no ALT contact (3.509). Eta^2 was estimated at .057, which indicated that 5.7% of the variance between the three mean scores on A-3 were due to the ALT contact variable. As with the data displayed in Table 4, this may be due to the presence of other variables in the data.

Two other items, A-1 (a *yakudoku* activity, $p = .0166$) and A-2 (a CLT reading activity, $p = .0267$), approached significance, but did not exceed the predesignated $p < .0042$. On A-1, teachers with no ALT contact (3.519) were more approving of a *yakudoku* activity than JTEs teaching with an ALT at least once a week (3.285). On A-2, JTEs teaching with an ALT less than once a week (3.515) were more approving of a CLT reading activity than teachers with no ALT contact (3.310).

Discussion

To restate the first research question: According to the JTEs responding to the survey, what are the relative numbers of teachers who teach English I and II at least once a week with an ALT, less than once a week with an ALT, or not at all? A majority of JTEs reported not teaching English I or II with an ALT (Table 2). Employing ALTs is expensive, and not all EFL classrooms at the high school level can be supplied with them. However, there may be an additional reason why ALTs are not assigned to team-teach with the majority of JTEs. In the larger study that generated this report, at least ten teachers commented that ALTs in their school were used in oral communication classes, but not for English I or II classes. The impression gained from this is that English I and II were somehow the territory of JTEs. This may mean that these particular JTEs use English I or II courses to teach non-oral English skills for the purpose of preparing students for university exams.

According to Kawakami (1993), under the previous *Monbusho Course of Study* (1978 to 1993) JTEs had similar attitudes. The older *Course of Study* provided for English I and II courses ("four [language] skills" courses, p. 19), English IIA, a listening/speaking course; English IIB, a reading course; and English IIC, a writing course. Kawakami claimed that teachers in schools, assuming that English I and II courses were supposed to help students pass university entrance exams, were decoupling speaking and listening instruction and simply relegating

oral practice to the English IIA course. In current English I and II classrooms, ALTs may not be seen as particularly useful, particularly if ALTs are associated with *eikaiwa* (oral English used for conversation) and JTEs associate themselves with *eigo* (non-oral English language as learned from intensive reading) (Law, 1995, pp. 221-222). The distribution of ALTs revealed in this study, then, may be a result of current attitudes about how team teaching is best utilized in EFL education in Japan.

The second research question was: What are the patterns of distribution of ALTs team teaching in English I and II classes according to type of school? There were differences reported by JTEs in the distribution of ALTs according to type of school (public academic, public vocational, and private academic) (Table 3). Refreshingly, a healthy minority of both public academic and public vocational high school teachers reported having at least some ALT contact. This may suggest that there is some approval in these schools of the notion of having ALTs team teach in English I or II classes. It is possible that public high school JTEs (and their local level administrators) are sensitive to recent social trends and *Monbusho* policies that are arguably leaning towards instruction of English as communication. Because of this trend, JTEs themselves may want to change by developing their skills as teachers, or improving their own oral English skills, in order to meet the changing demands of society. The data also raise the intriguing question of how team teaching activities in vocational schools, schools that are thought to be free of university entrance exam preparation pressure, can be characterized. Clearly, research on EFL instruction in vocational schools should be conducted, something not often done on any topic concerning vocational high school education in Japan (James & Benjamin, 1988; Okano, 1993), even though fully 26% of all high school students in Japan attend vocational high schools (Statistics Bureau, 1997, p. 20).

Private academic high school JTEs reported a low level of ALT contact in English I and II classes. Given the data, it may be necessary to view private academic high schools as quite different from high schools in the public sector. The data may be reflecting the fact that private high schools do not participate in the nationally funded JET program. Either the private sector has its own program, or schools hire native English speaking teachers on their own. If ALTs are present in private high schools in any number, they may simply be used to teach courses intended to develop students' oral skills. Finally, private high school JTEs and administrators may feel less sensitivity towards the same social trends and educational policies named above than their public

school counterparts. For example, Gorsuch (1999a, p. 269) found that the same private academic high school JTEs sampled for this study were more approving of questionnaire item A-4 than public academic and vocational high school JTEs. Item A-4 depicts a *yakudoku* activity in which students recite their Japanese translations of English texts in English I and II class. The same teachers reported lower levels of approval of CLT activities in English I and II classes than public academic and vocational high school teachers (p. 294). Attitudes towards instruction in private academic high schools may be quite different from those in public high schools. Private academic high schools are likely concerned about attracting students by presenting a successful track record of helping students pass university entrance exams. Whatever the case, if ALTs are associated with CLT instruction, this may account for the pattern of ALT use in private academic high schools found in this study.

ALT Involvement

What is most remarkable, however, is that the data answering research questions 1 and 2 suggest that ALTs are engaged in team teaching in a surprising number of English I or II classrooms. In public academic and vocational high schools, slightly more than half of responding JTEs reported at least some ALT contact. If ALT involvement in English I and II classes was considered truly inappropriate by these teachers, there might not be so many ALTs teaching in these classes. Longitudinal research is needed to answer the question of whether ALT involvement in English I and II classes is on the rise, or is simply a stable phenomenon over time. Of more central concern is the question of causality: Is the presence of ALTs changing JTEs' attitudes about situations in which team teaching is appropriately used? Or are JTEs changing their attitudes on their own, perhaps through social trends, and then simply requesting ALTs in the English I and II classes as a result of their changing attitudes? This is a question worth investigating further, particularly through extensive interviews with JTEs.

Have ALTs Changed JTEs?

To restate the third and fourth research questions: Do JTEs' self-reports of English speaking ability differ according to their level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes, and do JTEs' self reports of their own English learning experiences differ according to their level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes? These questions deal with JTEs' perceptions of themselves. The third question in particular

deals with the question raised in the introduction of this report, which was, "Have ALTs changed JTEs?" In terms of JTEs' perceptions of their English speaking ability, I would argue "yes." JTEs who had contact with ALTs in English I and II classes reported their English speaking abilities, as used in class, as being significantly higher than JTEs with limited or no ALT contact (Table 4). I base my argument for causality partly on the observations of Yukawa (1992, 1994), who reported that a JTE, through team teaching a reading course with an ALT, progressively used more and more English in class. Through the JTE's contact with the ALT, it is possible that the JTE's confidence in his ability to use classroom English increased, even though Yukawa characterized the JTE as a good speaker of English before his contact with an ALT.

I also base my argument for causality on common sense. If ALTs are not proficient in Japanese, then JTEs and ALTs must communicate in English in order to plan classes and coordinate their instruction while in class. This interaction would necessarily entail the use of classroom-specific and general English, and would give JTEs exposure to the language presented in the lessons through the oral/aural mode, rather than through the written word. This surely would give participating JTEs a real sense of their English abilities. However, there is always the possibility that JTEs chose to work with ALTs *because* they were already confident in their ability to use English. Nevertheless, I believe previous research and common sense suggest that ALTs are causing positive changes in JTEs' professional abilities. I urge classroom teachers, both ALTs and JTEs, to conduct their own observations along the lines of Yukawa (1992, 1994), and to conduct self- and other-interviews to pin down the causality issue, as well as to characterize changes in the professional development of ALTs and JTEs.

The fourth research question addressed JTEs' perceptions of their own language learning experiences and whether contact with an ALT has an effect on those perceptions. The data resulting from this survey were inconclusive (Table 5). Teachers with high ALT contact tended to have lower levels of agreement with the notion that they had learned English through *yakudoku* than teachers with less or no ALT contact. However, the mean scores of the three groups were not significantly different.

Nonetheless, this intriguing question is still worth asking. It raises several issues. First, if the JTEs in this survey had indicated that their self-perceptions did significantly change with high ALT contact, would it mean that at some point in their teaching careers, those JTEs disassociated themselves from their own learning experiences? This is an in-

teresting possibility, and may indicate the direction for further inquiries into the mechanisms of teacher change. Did such teachers see ALT contact as an opportunity for important professional and personal growth? Were they already on the path of self-development, where team teaching with an ALT was simply an available way to meet those JTEs' goals? Most importantly, why did they want to change? Second, is there a group of JTEs who were self-directed enough to learn English through other means, above and beyond the *yakudoku* universe of their high school and university learning experiences? What would characterize this group? Early overseas experience? Age? There is the final possibility that through contact with ALTs, JTEs' perceptions of their own personal histories took a major shift, even if JTEs were not initially willing to do team teaching with an ALT. Working with an ALT may constitute a transformative event for such teachers. More research is needed.

JTEs and the Current Political Line

The fifth and final research question was: Does JTEs' level of approval of communicative, ALM, and *yakudoku* activities differ according to level of contact with ALTs in English I and II classes? JTEs with high ALT contact approved of a communicative information gap activity significantly more than JTEs with less or no ALT contact (Table 6). However, there were no other significant differences in approval of any other activities due to ALT contact. The lack of other significant differences may be for two reasons. First, the activities, as stated, may not have been expressed in ways that teachers can easily apply them to their own practice. That is to say, JTEs may not conceive of and plan their lessons as a series of activities tied to particular approaches to language learning. Instead, they may primarily plan their lessons around vocabulary or grammar structures presented in English I or II textbooks and simply let the lesson flow from that (see Gorsuch, 1999b for a review of English I and II textbooks). Second, JTEs may be feeling beleaguered by recent shifts in educational policy, and may feel reluctant to answer questions about what activities and methodologies they prefer. Therefore, questionnaires may not be the best method of investigating JTEs' approval of activities. Certainly, JTEs' responses to all the activities items in the questionnaire were centered at a rating of mild approval (Table 6), a conservative and cautious place in which to be.

This leaves us with the higher approval of a CLT activity by high-ALT-contact JTEs. There are several reasons why such teachers may approve of the information gap activity. First, teachers who have regular contact with ALTs may find it easier to model CLT pair work activi-

ties for students with the help of an ALT. Second, it could be that when an ALT is in the classroom, students (and/or the ALT) expect to do something different from highly controlled ALM and *yakudoku* activities. Finally, there may be a link with teachers' self-perception of English speaking skill – recall that teachers teaching with ALTs at least once a week rated their English speaking skills higher than teachers who had less or no contact with ALTs (Table 6). Perhaps teachers who have more confidence in their ability to speak English are more likely to approve of A-3, the information gap activity.

Conclusion

I believe the data presented in this report generally point to the positive effects ALTs have on JTEs. I think we need to view the JET program and the presence of ALTs as a dynamic, if unevenly available, form of in-service teacher education. Whether a causal factor or not, the presence of an ALT is linked with higher JTE reports of classroom-centered English speaking ability and greater approval of a communicative information gap activity. Clearly, ALTs encourage professional and personal growth in JTEs by helping diversify their instructional practice, and stretching their abilities to communicate in English. I believe that ALTs are indeed changing the way English is taught in Japan, and that they are changing it for the good.

I have noted, however, that ALTs are unevenly distributed in English I and II classes in Japanese high schools, perhaps as a result of prevailing attitudes that ALTs should be used for "communication" and "games." I would like to argue here that ALTs, and CLT activities, belong in English I and II classes. English I and II are the most commonly taught classes in high schools, and if *Monbusho* wants Japanese students to be able to be the "cosmopolitan" and foreign-language-proficient citizens they dream of (Lincicome, 1993), using ALTS and CLT activities in English I and II classes is the best way to reach the greatest number of students. Further, English I and II courses are four-skills courses, and should not be de facto reading/university exam preparation courses. Finally, there is nothing in the course descriptions for English I and II courses that precludes the use of CLT activities. With a minimum of awareness and planning, CLT activities can promote all of the goals and objectives set out in the English I and II course description in *The Course of Study* (Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture , 1992).

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Appendix

This questionnaire is designed for teachers who are currently teaching English I and/or English II. If you are not teaching these courses this year, please give this questionnaire to a colleague who is teaching English I and/or English II this year. **Thank you!**

Please read the activity descriptions below and write a circle or check in the blank that best describes your level of agreement. Please consider each activity carefully, and let your response reflect your true impression about the appropriateness of the activities for your current English I or II classes. If you choose "5" for example, this means you would be strongly willing to use the activity in your class. If you choose "1", this means, you would not be at all willing to use the activity. Please choose only one response.

A-1. The teacher asks students to translate English phrases or sentences into Japanese as preparation for class.

I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:

strongly agree___	agree___	don't know ___	disagree___	strongly disagree___
5	4	3	2	1

A-2. The teacher has students look at a page that has a "picture strip story." Students can uncover only one picture at a time. Before uncovering the next picture, the students predict, writing the prediction in English, what will happen in the next picture. Students can then look at the next picture to confirm or disconfirm their predictions.

I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:

strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

A-3. The teacher has the students work face to face in pairs. One student sees a page that has some missing information. The other student sees a different page that has that information. The first student must ask questions in English to the other student to find the missing information.

I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:

strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

A-4. The teacher asks students to translate English phrases or sentences into Japanese in preparation for class. Then in class, the teacher calls on individual students to read their Japanese translation of an English phrase or sentence, and the teacher corrects it if necessary and gives the whole class the correct translation with an explanation.

I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:

strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

A-5. The teacher has students chorally repeat word pairs such as ***sheep/ship*** and ***leave/live***.

I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:

strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

A-6. The teacher has students memorize and practice a short English sentence pattern. The teacher then gives the students a one word English cue and has the students chorally say the sentence pattern using the new word.

I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:

strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

A-7. The teacher pairs off students. Then the teacher asks the students to write a letter in English to their partner.

I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:

strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

A-8. The teacher has students memorize an English dialog and then has the students practice the dialog together with a partner.

I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:

strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

A-9. The teacher has pairs or small groups of students ask each other and then answer questions in English about their opinions.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

A-10. Students read a sentence in Japanese, and then see an equivalent English sentence below where the words have been scrambled up. The students must then rewrite the English sentence in the correct order suggested by the Japanese sentence.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

A-11. On one page students see a picture. Underneath the picture are several short English stories. Students have to choose which story they think best matches the picture.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

A-12. On a page, students see an English paragraph in which the sentences have been scrambled. The teacher then asks the students to put the sentences into order so the paragraph makes sense.
I think the above is an appropriate activity for my English I or English II classes:
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

A-13. What activity do you feel is most effective for your students in your English I or II class? Please write a brief description here: (Optional)

Please answer the following questions by writing a check next to the most correct answer. Choose only one response.

B-1. How many years have you been teaching in high school?
_____ 0-8 years
_____ 9-16 years
_____ 17+ years

B-2. What kind of high school are you currently teaching in?
_____ public academic high school
_____ public commercial or industrial high school
_____ public night high school
_____ private academic school

B-3. Are you currently teaching English I or English II with an ALT (Assistant Language Teacher)?
_____ Yes, at least once a week.
_____ Yes, but less than once a week.
_____ No, I do not teach English I or English II with an ALT.

Please read the sentences below and write a check in the blank that best describes your level of agreement. Choose only once response.

C-1. My English speaking ability is good enough for me to use in class.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

C-2. As a student I studied English primarily through translating English stories, essays, or literary works into Japanese.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

C-3. I think the pace we have to teach English at my high school is:
much too fast____ fast____ about right____ slow____ much too slow____
5 4 3 2 1

C-4. The average size of my English I or English II classes is:
over 50____ 40-49____ 30-39____ 20-29____ below 19____
5 4 3 2 1

Please read the sentences below concerning your *current instruction in English I and II classes* and write a check in the blank that best describes your level of agreement. Choose only one response.

D-1. The *Monbusho* guidelines for English I and English II influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

D-2. College and university entrance exams influence my classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

D-3. The textbook my students are using influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

D-4. The teaching license program I completed at university influences my current classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

D-5. In-service teacher education specifically designed for English teaching offered by my prefectural or municipal board of education influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

_____ In-service teacher education for English teaching is not available from the Board of Education for me.

D-6. The way I learned English as a student influences my current classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

D-7. My English teaching colleagues influence my classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

D-8. The principal at my school influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

D-9. Teaching courses I have taken privately influence my current classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

_____ I have not taken teaching courses privately.

D-10. My membership in a private academic organization influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

_____ I am not a member of an academic organization.

D-11. The English I and English II syllabus used at my school influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

D-12. The number of students in my English I or II classes influences my classroom practice. (i.e., Would you teach differently if your classes had many students or few students?)
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

D-13. The ALT I teach English I or II with influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

_____ I do not currently teach English I or English II with an ALT.

D-14. The expectations of my students' parents influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

D-15. My students' expectations about how to study English influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree____ agree____ don't know ____ disagree____ strongly disagree____
5 4 3 2 1

D-16. My students' abilities in English influence my classroom practice.
strongly agree___ agree___ don't know ___ disagree___ strongly disagree___
5 4 3 2 1

D-17. My level of English speaking ability influences my classroom practice.
strongly agree___ agree___ don't know ___ disagree___ strongly disagree___
5 4 3 2 1

D-18. What is one influence not listed above that you feel strongly influences your instruction of English I or English II? (Optional)

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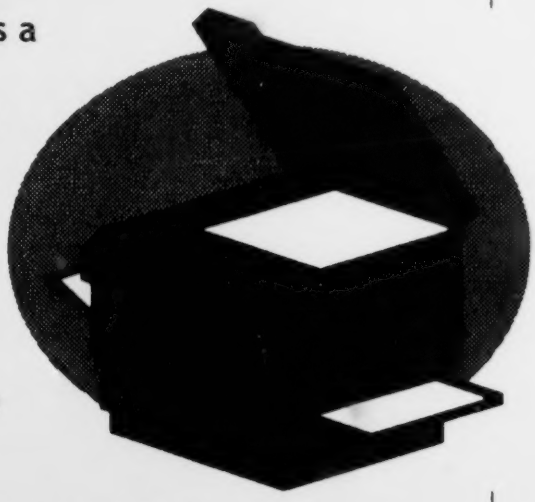

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Communicative Language Teaching の実現を促す英語科組織の経営特性－高等学校の英語科経営に関する質問紙調査を通して－

(Organizational Effectiveness of Upper Secondary School English Language Departments and Their Commitment toward Communicative Language Teaching)

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Since 1970, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has developed as a predominant trend in the world of second language teaching. CLT has had an enormous influence on theoretical aspects of second language teaching, but there has not been much evidence of change in its practical application. In the academic area of English language education research, the major focus has been on methods of instruction, teaching content, and political aspects. However, little attention has been paid to how English language education is carried out in an organized manner among the personnel of English language departments (EL departments) in Japanese schools. In order to understand the organizational characteristics appropriate to CLT practices, this study investigates (1) the realities of EL department members' commitment to CLT in public upper secondary schools in Japan, (2) the organizational characteristics of EL departments, and (3) the relationship between the organizational characteristics and the commitment to CLT

The framework to analyze organizational characteristics of the EL departments was constructed based on the theory of organizational science and research of effective schools, which consists of four criteria: adaptability, goal rationality, collegiality, and orientation. Adaptability is a criterion to assess the flexibility of EL departments in adapting to their external environments and their creativity in the face of a changing world. Goal-rationality is a criterion to assess levels of goal-attainment through the PDS cycle; setting department objectives and plans to attain them (Plan), carrying them out (Do), and evaluating them (See).

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Collegiality refers to the assessment of the efficiency of the management, and collaboration among the members of EL departments. Orientation refers to the assessment of the maintenance of the value patterns shared among the members, levels of morale, and commitment to develop the quality of their English language education. The framework for CLT is based on Kumaravadivelu's (1994) macrostrategies.

To collect data about the realities of organizational characteristics of EL departments and CLT practices, a questionnaire was administered at 128 upper secondary schools in the Chugoku area. The data of 82 schools were finally used to analyze their relations.

As a result, the following conclusions were reached:

(1) CLT can be divided into two types: activity-based CLT and form-based CLT. In most schools, both types are considered as ideal ways of teaching the language, but considering the relatively small proportion of schools where CLT is put into practice, it seems to be difficult to apply them under the present organizational conditions of EL departments.

(2) The organizational characteristics of EL departments can be grasped from the four criteria: adaptability, goal-rationality, collegiality, and orientation, and they are different from school to school.

(3) The four organizational characteristics were confirmed to promote CLT practices. Orientation and goal-rationality are especially crucial to realize CLT. In terms of CLT types, form-based CLT can be rationally put into practice through the PDS management cycle, but to realize activity-based CLT, which has been recently called for in the Japanese *Course of Study*, it is not enough to introduce such a rational approach, but it furthermore requires collaboration in which teachers exchange and share their trials and errors in these practices and conceptualize their own CLT.

高等学校の英語科組織の経営特性と、英語科教員のCommunicative Language Teaching(CLT)へのコミットメントの現状を質問紙調査を通して把握し、CLTの実現を促す英語科組織の経営のあり方を追求することを目的としている。調査票は教育経営学や組織研究などの知見をもとに作成され、英語科組織の4つの経営特性(適応性、目標合理性、連帯性、志向性)とその成員のCLTへのコミットメントに関する質問項目から構成された。分析の結果、1)CLTの実現には英語科教員の意識レベルのコミットメントを促すような職場環境が必要であること、2)4つの経営特性はCLTの実現に有効に働きかけること、3)特に活動重視型CLTの実現は合理的な運営方式のみでは不十分であり、英語科組織成員がお互いの経験や問題意識を共有することを通じて状況に応じたCLTを創っていくことが必要であること、などが明らかにされた。

近年の高等学校学習指導要領(外国語科)では、コミュニケーション能力の育成が志向されると同時に、現場教員による、状況に応じた柔軟な指導ができるように、指導上の様々な規制が緩和されてきた。その徴候は、英語の指導内容や方法、科目数など学習指導要領の様々な面に伺うことができる。その一方で、和田(1998)は、この「柔軟」を「自由」あるいは「自律」と受け止めるか、「混沌」と受け止めるか、英語教員の自律性の問題を考える必要性があることを指摘し

ている。しかし、これまでの英語教育研究では、指導方法や内容に焦点が当てられてきたが、同じ学校に属する英語科教員の集団であり現場の英語教育を裁量する主体である「英語科組織」が状況に応じた学校固有の問題にいかに対処して英語教育を経営していくのかということに関しては殆ど議論されてこなかった。このような現実を踏まえ、山森(2000b)では英語科組織の経営の必要性を説き、山森(2000a)ではそのあり方を考慮すべく英語科組織の有効性の指標を構築した。そこで本稿は、その有効性指標とコミュニケーション志向の英語教育(Communicative Language Teaching: 以下、CLTと略す)との関連を探ることを通して、英語科組織の経営のあり方を実証的に追求することを目的としている。

英語科組織の有効性

英語科組織はいかなる状態の時に「有効である」と言えるのであろうか。組織論や経営学では、組織の能力を包括的に呼ぶ言葉として「有効性(effectiveness)」という用語が使用されている。しかし、この有効性の概念を把握するための基準は多様でかつ同定するのは難しい(Cameron & Whetten, 1983)。例えば、Steers(1975)やCampbell(1977)は有効性に関する先行研究を概観し、それまで扱われていた多数の有効性指標を提示している(適応性・柔軟性、生産性、満足度など)。

このような指標を整理するためにQuinn & Rohrbaugh (1983)は有効性に関する3つの価値次元を提示している。まず第1の次元「焦点」は、組織の関心が組織内部にあるのか、外部にあるのかを示している。組織関心が内部にある場合、組織は社会・技術的システムとみなされ、組織成員は、好き嫌いなどの独特の感情をもち、職場での語らい、適切な情報、そして安定性を要求する。一方、組織関心が外部にある場合は、組織はその使命の達成や組織資源を獲得するといった目標を果たすためにデザインされた道具とみなされる。次に第2の次元「構造」は、組織の柔軟性と安定性を両極にもつ。前者は革新と変化をその中心的な価値とし、多様性や個々人の直感、適応性が強調される。一方、後者は秩序と制御をその中心的な価値とし、権威や構造、調整などが強調される。そして第3の次元「目的か方法か」は、組織の有効性をその目的の到達度とみるか、到達過程とみるか、という次元である。以上の次元を組み合わせQuinn & Rohrbaugh (1983)は4つの有効性指標を提示している。山森(2000a)ではこの指標に基づき英語科組織の有効性の枠組みを構築した(図1)。

「適応性」は、学校内外の環境、あるいは社会的状況や要望などに英語科組織や英語教育がどれだけ柔軟に適応しているかを示す経営特性、「目標合理性」は、目標を設定し、それを達成するための合理的な計画やその実行、結果の評価を通して、目標を達成しているかを示す経営特性、「連帯性」は、英語科教員同士の協働的活動が組織・実践されてい

るかを示す経営特性、「志向性」は、英語科教員の間に共有される、英語授業や経営のあり方に関する価値観や、英語教育の質を高めようとする士気が維持されているかを示す経営特性、である。以上を考慮すれば、これまで英語教育の経営的側面は目標合理性のみから捉えられてきたといえよう。しかし、同指標に基づけば、英語科組織の経営特性をより包括的に把握できると同時に、経営の方向性を多角的に示すことが可能である。

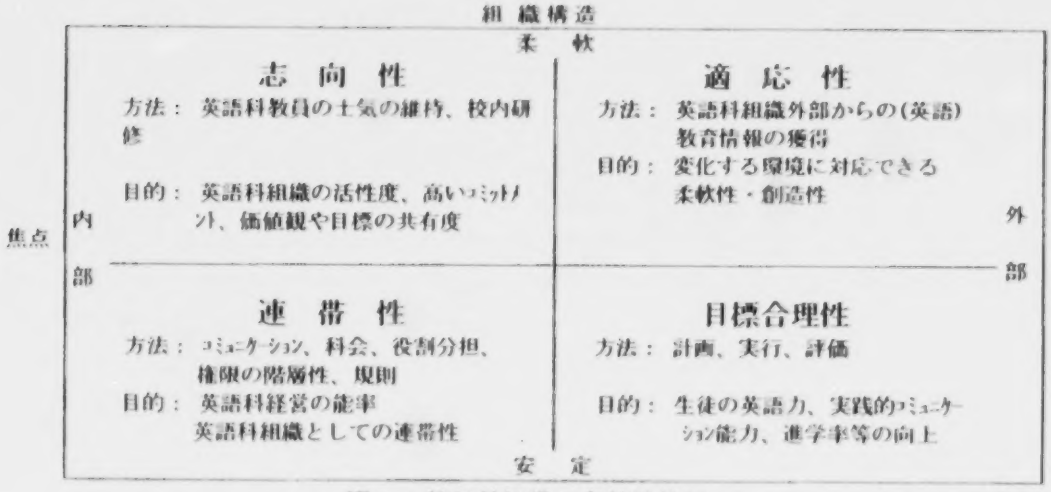

図１：英語科組織の有効性指標

英語科組織の経営特性とCLTとの関連

それでは、以上の４つの経営特性はコミュニケーション志向の英語教育(CLT)の実現に有効に働きかけるのであろうか。ここでは、高等学校における英語科組織の経営特性とCLTとの間にある関係を解明することを目的に実施した質問紙調査の結果を報告する。

調査課題

1)英語科教員のCLTへのコミットメントの現状の把握。
2)英語科組織の経営特性の現状の把握。
3)英語科組織の経営特性とCLTへのコミットメントとの関係の解明。

調査

調査手法

郵送法による質問紙調査。2000年7～9月実施。

調査対象

中国地区(5県)に在する公立高等学校(全309校一普通高校と専門高校の比率は74%と26%)の英語科教員を調査対象とした。最終的に128校(回収率41%)の419名分の回答を有効データとして扱った。同標本校数は信頼度が95%で誤差幅7%、普通高校と専門高校の比率はそれぞれ70%と30%であり、後述する因子分析ではこれらのデータを全て用いた。

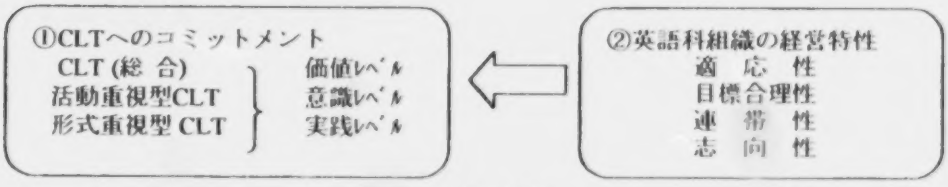

図２：分析枠組み

図２は本調査の分析枠組みを示している。まず①CLTへのコミットメントと②英語科組織の経営特性の現状を把握し、その後、両者の関係を分析する。①ＣＬＴへのコミットメントに関する質問項目は、Kumaravadivelu(1994)のマクロストラテジー(see 山森, 1999)を、学習指導要領などをもとに日本の英語教育の現状に合うように調整・項目化したものであり、各項目を価値レベル(重要だと思うか)、意識レベル(勤務校において意識しているか)、実践レベル(実際に実践しているか)の観点から尋ねている(表１)。また、②英語科組織の経営特性に関する質問項目は、図１、及び、Rosenholtz (1991)などの効果的学校研究の成果をもとに作成された(表６)。

分析手法

質問項目は、「全くそうである」から「全くそうでない」の７段階のリカート方式により回答が求められた。各回答に対し７点～１点の点数

を与え回答者の得点とし、この得点をもとに統計分析を施した。まず、図2の①と②それぞれの質問項目群ごとに因子分析を実施した。次に回答者が質問項目に与えた得点を抽出因子ごとに合計し、項目数で除すことにより算出した数値を回答者個人の得点とした。本調査では組織単位の実態把握を主眼としていることを踏まえ、回答者個人の得点をもとに英語科組織(学校)ごとの平均得点を算出し、対象校の代表値とした。ただし、代表値が対象校の現状を反映するにはある程度の人数が必要であることを考慮に入れ、英語科組織成員の半数以上から回答が得られた高校のみをその後の分析の対象とした。最終的に82校の英語科組織がこの基準を満たし、同標本は信頼度95%で誤差幅10%、普通高校と専門高校の比率は63%と37%となった。

結果と考察

CLTへのコミットメントの現状

表1はCLTへのコミットメントに関する各質問項目である。

表1: CLTへのコミットメントに関する質問項目

質問項目	略称
教師と生徒が協同して英語授業を創り上げる。	学習機会最大化
英語で積極的にコミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度を育成する。	意思伝達態度
コミュニケーション活動を可能な限り実施する。	意味交渉促進
複数の技能を授業にできるだけ織り混ぜる。	4技能統合
言語の使用場面や働きを考慮に入れた活動を行う。	言語文脈化
生徒自らが文法規則を帰納的に推測・発見するような授業を行う。	帰納的文法指導
英語の文法規則に対する分析的な力を養うような文法指導を行う。	言語意識化
自主性を養う学習方法の指導や問題解決学習などの方策を施す。	自律性
様々な国の文化、日本文化に関する知識・意識・態度を育成する。	異文化理解
英語学習の意義を見きわめ、それを授業に反映させる。	社会認識
進学に十分な量の英語知識(文法・語彙など)を指導する。	英語知識

まず、各質問項目に与えられた点数をレベル(価値、意識、実践)ごとに合計した[1]。この合計点はあらゆる要素を含んだCLTへのコミットメントの度合いを表し、以下では「CLT(総合)」と呼ぶ。そして、レベル間の平均値の差が統計的に有意か確認した(反復測定分散分析)。その結果、各レベルの効果は有意であり($F_{(2,125\cdot4)}$=228.29, p<.001)、多重比較によれば、価値>意識>実践の順であった(MSe=80.76, p<.05)。以上の結果は、英語科教員が理想としているCLT(価値レベル)と、現場の状況

を踏まえて意識されるCLT(意識レベル)、実際に実践されるCLT(実践レベル)は異なること、及び、CLTに対するコミットメントは価値レベルでは高いが、意識レベル、実践レベルの順に低くなることを示唆している。

次に、コミットメントのレベル間の相関関係を求めた結果、価値と意識レベルには中程度の正の相関(r=.49, p<.001)、意識と実践レベルには強い正の相関(r=.85, p<.001)、価値と実践レベルには弱い正の相関(r=.27, p<.001)が確認された(表2)。この結果は、CLTの実践(実践レベル)は、教員の理想的なCLT像(価値レベル)というよりも現場状況に応じて意識されるCLT像(意識レベル)に強く規定されることを示唆している。

表2:CLT(総合)へのコミットメントのレベル間の相関係数 (n=419)

	意識レベル	実践レベル
価値レベル	.49 ***	.27 ***
意識レベル		.85 ***

***p<.001

さらに、CLTの実践を規定すると考えられる意識レベルの質問項目に与えられた得点をもとに因子分析を実施した。その結果、2つの因子が抽出された(表3)。

表3:CLTへのコミットメントに関する項目の因子パターン行列

質問項目	因子I	因子II
<活動重視型CLT>		
意思伝達態度	**.84**	-.14
意味交渉促進	**.70**	.02
4技能統合	**.57**	.15
言語文脈化	**.57**	.18
<形式重視型CLT>		
言語意識化	-.06	**.75**
帰納的文法指導	.13	**.60**
英語知識	-.04	**.54**
自律性	.31	**.44**
α係数	.85	.81

プロマックス回転

各因子を構成する質問項目より、第I因子は、意味ある場面における4技能を統合した言語活動を通して、コミュニケーションを図ろうとする態度を養うことを示しているため「活動重視型CLT」と名付けられた。この種のCLTは、生徒の言語「使用」に焦点があり、近年の学習指導要領において実現が強調されている指導法でもある。一方、第II因子

は、英語の知識(文法や語彙)の指導の中でも生徒の自発性を尊重し、生徒自身が主体的・帰納的に言語構造を構築する能力を養うことを示しているため「形式重視型CLT」と名付けられた。この種のCLTは、生徒の言語に対する意識や分析力を養うことに焦点があり、従来の機械的な知識詰め込み型の文法指導とは性格を異にする。以上、抽出された因子ごとに質問項目に与えられた点数を合計し、項目数で除すことにより得られた数値を回答者個人の得点とした。

コミットメントのレベル間の平均値の差が統計的に有意か確認した結果(反復測定分散分析)、各レベルの効果は有意であり(活動重視型CLT: $F_{(2,1254)}$=234.66, p<.001, 形式重視型CLT: $F_{(2,1254)}$=130.75, p<.001)、多重比較によれば、両者ともに価値>意識>実践の順であった(活動重視型CLT: MSe=1.03, p<.05, 活動重視型CLT: MSe=1.02, p<.05)。ここでもコミットメントに3つのレベルが存在することが確認された。

次に、活動重視型CLTと形式重視型CLTそれぞれにおけるコミットメントのレベル間の相関係数を算出した結果、価値と実践レベルの相関関係が前者では低い相関(r=.25)であった(表4)のに対し、後者では中程度の相関(r=.40)があった(表5)。これは、活動重視型CLTは理想として認識されていたとしても、形式重視型CLTに比べ、現実の指導方法として意識、あるいは実践され難いことを示唆している。

表4:活動重視型CLTへのコミットメントのレベル間の相関係数 (n=419)

	意識レベル	実践レベル
価値レベル	.46 ***	.25 ***
意識レベル		.82 ***

***p<.001

表5:形式重視型CLTへのコミットメントのレベル間の相関係数 (n=419)

	意識レベル	実践レベル
価値レベル	.52 ***	.40 ***
意識レベル		.89 ***

***p<.001

最後に、CLT(総合)、活動重視型CLT、形式重視型CLTへのコミットメントそれぞれに対して回答者が与えた得点から学校ごと(82校)の平均得点を算出した。そして、各学校を高得点群、中間点群、低得点群に分類し、その割合を図式化した(図3～5)。

CLT(総合)、活動重視型CLT、形式重視型CLTのいずれの意識レベルにおいても過半数(72%, 79%, 61%)の学校が高得点群に属していることから、CLTが学校現場に浸透してきていると言えよう。しかし、価値、意識、実践レベルという順で高得点群の割合が減少し、逆に中間点群と低得点群の割合が増加している。これは、各校の英語科教員が掲げる英

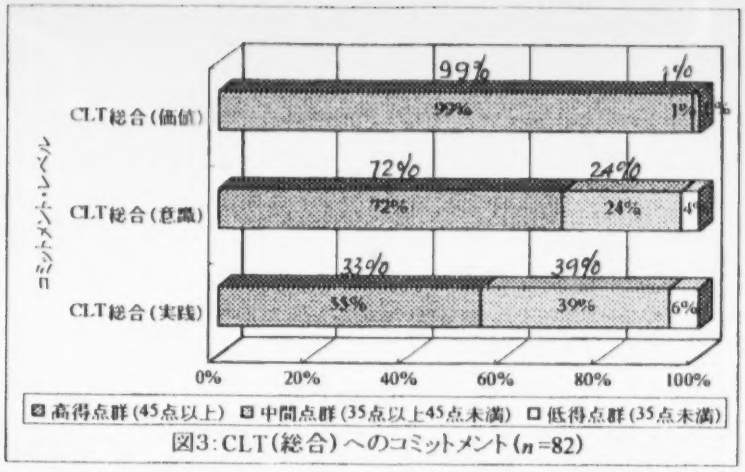

図3: CLT(総合)へのコミットメント(n=82)

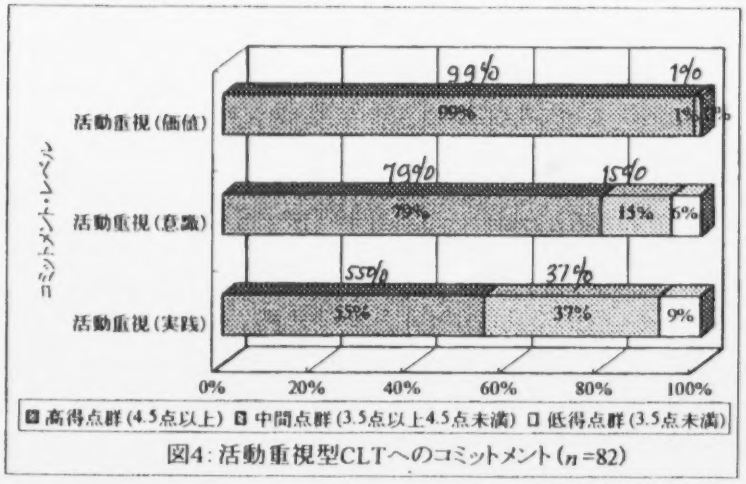

図4: 活動重視型CLTへのコミットメント(n=82)

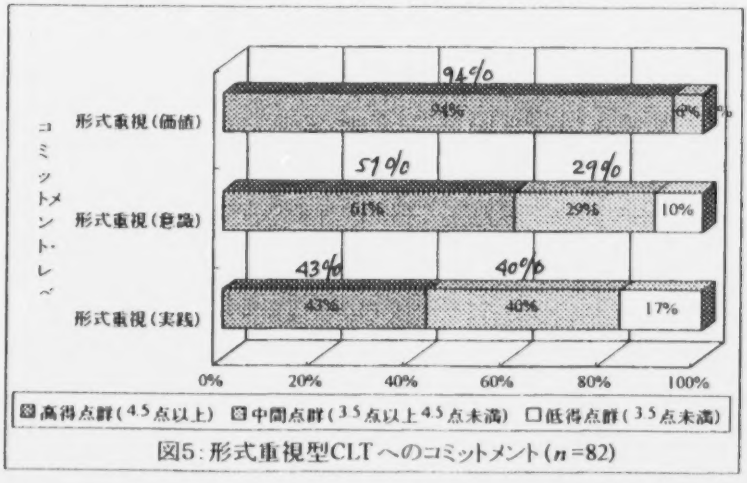

図5: 形式重視型CLTへのコミットメント(n=82)

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語教育の理想像は高いが、それを現状では十分に実現できていないことを示唆している。その原因として、学校の環境的要因(教員の多忙さ、生徒の雰囲気など)やCLTの技術的困難さなどが考えられる。そのような要因を含め、CLTが実現されている学校ではどのような英語科経営がなされているのかを検証する必要がある。

英語科組織の経営特性の現状

英語科組織の経営特性に関する質問項目について因子分析を実施し、予測された因子数や寄与率などから４つの因子が抽出された(表６)。各因子を構成している質問項目より、第Ⅰ因子は志向性、第Ⅱ因子は連帯性、第Ⅲ因子は目標合理性、第Ⅳ因子は適応性、を示していることが分かる。また、各経営特性を構成する質問項目の内的一貫性をクロンバックのα係数により算出した結果、高い信頼性が確認された(表６)。

表6:英語科組織の経営特性に関する質問項目の因子パターン行列

	質問項目	因子Ⅰ	因子Ⅱ	因子Ⅲ	因子Ⅳ
志向性	本校での英語指導に誇りを感じている。	.96	-.21	.00	-.04
	英語教員は英語授業の質の向上に積極的である。	.80	.12	-.10	.08
	英語教員は英語を教えることを楽しんでいる。	.77	-.05	.06	-.08
	英語授業に関して新しいアイデアを出す教員が多い。	.75	.03	-.03	.07
	授業研究や教材研究に熱心な英語教員が多い。	.71	.13	-.06	.03
	英語教育を向上させようとする雰囲気がある。	.67	.17	.10	-.15
連帯性	授業方針や内容などの決定の際、意見を述べることができる。	-.09	.85	-.20	-.10
	英語教員間で英語教育に関して協力ができる雰囲気がある。	-.08	.82	.15	-.04
	英語教育観について話し合える雰囲気がある。	.17	.71	-.01	-.03
	英語教員から適切な援助や助言を得ることができる。	.05	.71	-.05	.08
	アイデアや教材を共有し合える教員は英語科内に多い。	.22	.54	.06	.06
	生徒の英語学習に関する要望や悩みを把握するように取り組んでいる。	-.05	.47	.06	.28
目標合理性	指導内容が細かく規定されている。	-.06	-.33	.79	.04
	英語力に関する評価が頻繁になされる。	-.02	-.02	.74	-.02
	方針・目標や方策に関する議論が英語教員間・校内研修で行われている。	-.13	.32	.68	-.12
	生徒の英語力を評価する機会は多い。	.01	.04	.66	-.07
	科内で決定された指導方針や目標、重点項目がある。	.09	.01	.65	.05
	明確な達成目標が設定されている。	.20	-.02	.54	.14
適応性	県教委・地方事務所による英語教育に関する規定事項がある。	-.08	-.20	-.10	.88
	保護者の意見・要望を英語指導に反映するような努力がなされている。	.02	.05	-.09	.71
	学校内・地域の教育方針や重点項目が実際に授業で具現化されている。	.06	-.12	.16	.69
	現行学習指導要領を適切と認識している。	-.01	.11	-.01	.52
	他教科との連携が図られる場やシステムがある。	-.09	.17	.09	.49
	現行学習指導要領を明確に把握している。	.06	.31	.01	.42
	寄与率(%)	34	10	6	5
	α係数	.88	.83	.78	.72

プロマックス回転

次に、各経営特性に対して回答者が与えた得点から学校ごと(82校)の平均値を算出し、対象校を高得点群、中間点群、低得点群に分類し、その割合を図式化した(図6)。

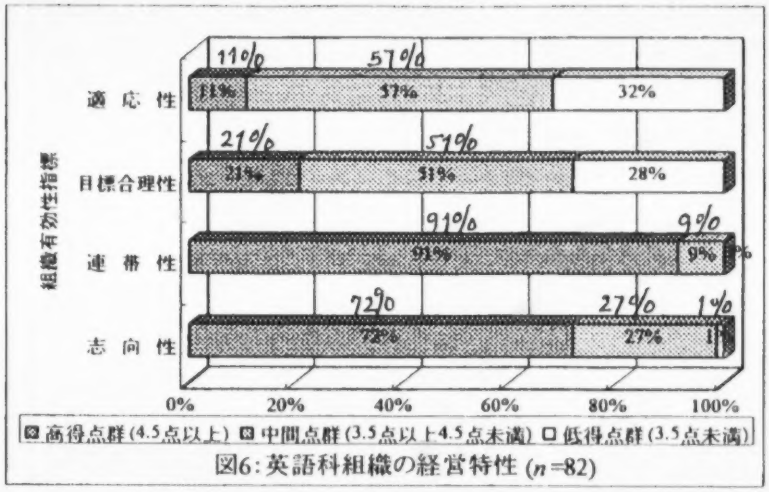

図6:英語科組織の経営特性 (n=82)

適応性と目標合理性に関しては、中間点群が過半数を占め(57%と51%)、残りは高得点群と低得点群に二分化し、連帯性と志向性は高得点群の割合が非常に高い(91%と72%)。多くの英語科組織では外部情報を獲得し、それに適応するために、英語教育の目標や計画を立て、実行、評価するという一般に考えられる経営が必ずしもなされていないことが伺える。その一方で、英語科教員同士の協力関係は高く、英語指導の質的向上に関して意欲的な学校が多いことが分かる。

英語科組織の経営特性とCLTへのコミットメントとの関係

英語科組織の経営特性とCLTへのコミットメントとの関係を明らかにするために相関分析を実施した。

英語科組織の経営特性とCLT(総合)へのコミットメントとの関係

価値レベルに関しては、連帯性(r=.41, p<.001)と志向性(r=.51, p<.001)に比較的高い正の相関が確認された。また、意識と実践レベルに関しては、目標合理性(r=.44, r=.44ともにp<.001)と志向性(r=.60, r=.53ともにp<.001)に比較的高い正の相関が、適応性(r=.26, p<.05, r=.30, p<.01)と連帯性(r=.34, r=.33ともにp<.01)に低い正の相関が確認された(表7)。

以上の結果は、CLT(総合)が実施されている英語科組織は、適応性、

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目標合理性、連帯性、志向性が強いことを示しており、これらの経営特性を高めることで、CLT(総合)へのコミットメントが意識・実践レベルにおいて促されることを示唆している。特に、目標合理性と志向性はCLTの意識・実践レベルのコミットメントとの関係が強く、CLTの実現には英語指導の質を高めていこうとする英語科教員の士気と共に、それを、計画－実行－評価という合理的経営のなかで実現していく必要性が示唆された。

表7:経営特性とCLT(総合)へのコミットメントとの相関分析 (n=82)

	CLT(総合)		
	価値レベル	意識レベル	実践レベル
適応性	.12 *n.s.*	.26 *	.30 **
目標合理性	.14 *n.s.*	.44 ***	.44 ***
連帯性	.41 ***	.34 **	.33 **
志向性	.51 ***	.60 ***	.53 ***

†p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001 *n.s.*=not significant

英語科組織の経営特性（活動重視型と形式重視型）へのコミットメントとの関係

まず、志向性には、活動重視型CLTと形式重視型CLTの全レベルに対し、比較的高い正の相関(活動重視型CLT: r=.44, r=.56, r=.48, 形式重視型CLT: r=.44, r=.51, r=.49, いずれもp<.001)が確認された。次に、目標合理性には、活動重視型CLTの意識・実践レベルに低い正の相関(r=.33, r=.33, ともにp<.01)が、形式重視型CLTには比較的高い正の相関(r=.57, r=.61, ともにp<.001)が確認された。また、価値レベルにおいては、活動重視型CLTとに相関が認められなかったが、形式重視型CLTとには、低い正の相関(r=.23, p<.05)が確認された。適応性には、活動重視型CLTとの間に十分な相関が認められず、形式重視型CLTの意識・実践レベルとの間に低い正の相関(r=.36, p<.001, r=.34, p<.01)が確認された。最後に連帯性には、活動重視型CLTの全レベルに対し、低い正の相関(r=.37, r=.38, ともにp<.001, r=.30, p<.01)が確認され、形式重視型CLTとの間には価値レベルのみに低い正の相関(r=.29, p<.01)が確認された(表８)。

表8:経営特性とCLT(類型別)へのコミットメントとの相関分析 (n=82)

	活動重視型CLT			形式重視型CLT		
	価値レベル	意識レベル	実践レベル	価値レベル	意識レベル	実践レベル
適応	.13 *n.s.*	.19 †	.21 †	.15 *n.s.*	.36 ***	.34 **
目標合理	.07 *n.s.*	.33 **	.33 **	.23 *	.57 ***	.61 ***
連帯	.37 ***	.38 ***	.30 **	.29 **	.19 †	.17 *n.s.*
志向	.44 ***	.56 ***	.48 ***	.44 ***	.51 ***	.49 ***

†p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001 *n.s.*=not significant

以上をまとめるならば、英語科組織の志向性は活動重視型CLTと形式重視型CLTを同じように促すが、適応性は形式重視型CLTを、連帯性は

活動重視型CLTを促す。また目標合理性は両者を促すが、その傾向は形式重視型CLTにおいて強い。これは、1)志向されるCLTの類型(活動重視型か形式重視型)に応じて英語科組織の４つの経営特性が果たす役割が異なること、2)形式重視型CLTは英語科組織の外部環境への適応活動を通じて生み出され、活動重視型CLTは英語科組織内部における教員同士の協働を通じて生み出されること、及び、3)形式重視型CLTに比べ、活動重視型CLTは、目標化あるいは評価し難いためか、計画－実行－評価といった経営方式にはなじみ難いこと、を示唆している。

英語科組織の経営特性とCLTの類型の対応関係

経営特性と各校で志向されるCLTの類型との対応関係を一層明確に確認するために、活動重視型CLTと形式重視型CLTへのコミットメント(意識レベル)の平均値をもとに、対象校を、活動重視型CLTと形式重視型CLTの両者を志向する学校(統合型: 33校)、前者のみを志向する学校(活動重視型: 10校)、後者のみを志向する学校(形式重視型: 12校)、どちらも志向していない学校(不完全型: 27校)、の４つに類型化した。図７は各類型に属する英語科組織の経営特性の平均値(平均値0, 標準偏差1に標準化)を表している。

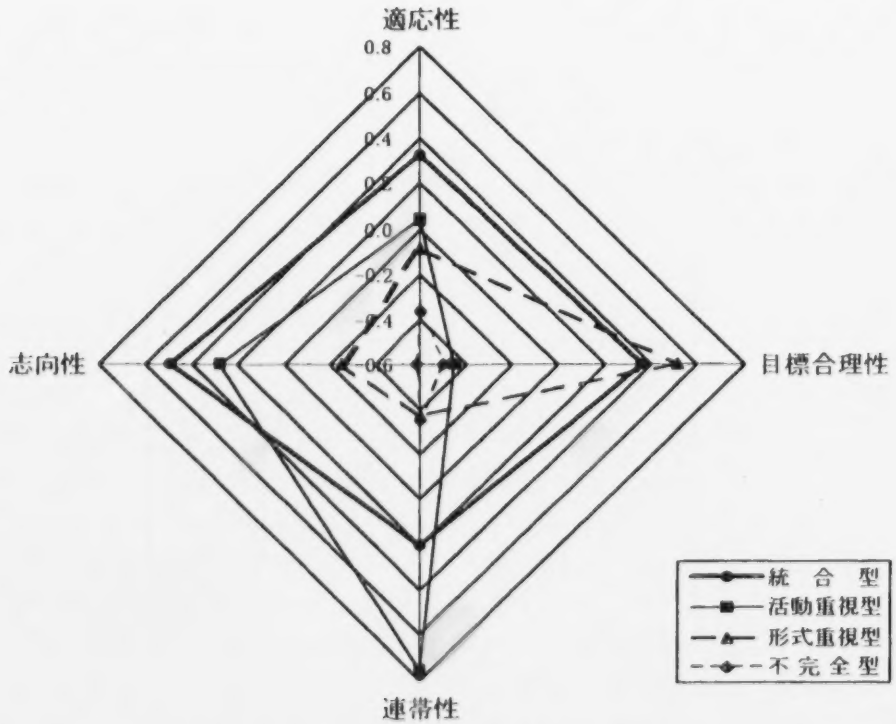

図7:志向されるCLTの類型別による英語科組織の経営特性

類型別の主効果は、有意傾向を示した適応性($F_{(3,78)}$=2.50, p<.10)を除く、目標合理性($F_{(3,78)}$=6.53, p<.001)、連帯性($F_{(3,78)}$=4.58, p<.01)、志向性($F_{(3,78)}$=7.73, p<.001)において有意であった。多重比較より、目標合理性は、統合型≒形式重視型>活動重視型>不完全型(MSe=.83, p<.05)、連帯性は、活動重視型≒統合型>形式重視型≒不完全型(MSe=.88, p<.05)、志向性は、統合型>形式重視型≒不完全型、統合型≒活動重視型>不完全型(但し活動重視型≒形式重視型。MSe=.80, p<.05)であった。

以上の結果に考察を加える。まず、適応性に関しては、志向されるCLTの類型による英語科組織間の統計的な相違はみられなかった。しかし、表8の相関分析において形式重視型CLTと適応性に有意な相関関係が確認されたことを踏まえれば、活動重視型CLTに比べ、形式重視型CLTは外部情報として、英語科組織に吸収されやすく、具現化が容易であることを示唆している。また形式重視型CLTのみが志向される英語科組織では連帯性が低く、目標合理性が高いのに対し、活動重視型CLTのみが志向される英語科組織では連帯性が高く、目標合理性が低い。これは、活動重視型CLTは形式重視型CLTに比べ、計画－実行－評価という一連の流れにおいて具現化され難く、それを促すには英語科教員同士がお互いの経験を共有し、自分たちのCLTを創造していくような協働関係が必要とされることを示唆している。

結　論

本調査の結果から高等学校の英語科経営について次のような提案ができる。

高等学校におけるCLTの実践は、教員の理想的なCLT像というよりも現場状況に応じて意識されるCLT像に強く規定されることが示唆された。従って、CLTの実現には、英語科教員が教育現場を踏まえてCLTをいかに解釈しているのかを解明すること、及び、その解釈のあり方がより適切な方向に促されるような現場環境、すなわち英語科組織の経営特性を開発することが必要である。

そのような英語科組織の経営特性として、適応性、目標合理性、連帯性、志向性があり、これらの特性を育てることが必要である。

より具体的には、英語の形式的側面の学習を中心に据えたCLTは、英語科組織の合理的な経営によって、すなわち、学校を取り巻く環境を踏まえた目標や指導計画を設定し、実行後、その結果を評価し、次の指導に活かすことで、その質を高めることができる。これに対し、近年とみに叫ばれるコミュニケーションを図る態度の育成や、コミュニケーション活動の促進、4技能の統合など、活動を重視したCLTを実現するには、そのような合理的な経営方式のみでは不十分であり、英語科組織の成員同士が、その種の英語教育の実現のために、お互いの経験を共有し試行錯誤を通じて、所属校の状況に合ったCLTを創り上げていくことが

必要である。

これらの経営特性を高めることで、形式重視型CLTと活動重視型CLTの実現が促され、相乗的にコミュニケーション志向の英語教育が実現されると考えられる。

注

1) CLTの総合得点を構成する質問項目のα係数はいずれのレベルにおいても0.9以上であった。また、総合得点には「英語知識」の点数は含まれていない。

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Teachers' Beliefs and Corrective Feedback

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Recent corrective feedback research has usually examined the effect of corrective feedback on students' linguistic outcomes. The present study proposes to expand the scope of this inquiry to include teachers as well as students. Using qualitative data, this paper examines the beliefs that appeared to be at work in two ESL teachers' corrective feedback behavior. By investigating how their beliefs are related to their corrective feedback behavior, this author contends that a more careful look at teacher corrective feedback that takes into consideration teachers' perspectives on how they utilize corrective feedback in their overall instructional scheme and what they hope to accomplish by it is warranted.

最近の間違いの直し方に関する研究では、その直し方が学習者の言語学習にどのような影響を及ぼすかについて調査したものが多い。本稿は学習者だけではなく、教師もその研究に含めることを提案する。質的データ（授業観察、面接、手紙、ビデオテープなど）に基づいて、二人のESL教師の信念が、間違いの直し方にどのように関係しているかを考察し、信念がどのように間違いの直し方に結びついているかを明らかにすることにより、間違いの直し方を教え方全体に対してはどのように位置づけるか、あるいはそのような行為で何を成し遂げたいのかという教師の視点を研究に盛り込むことの重要性を説く。そのようにして初めて間違い直しの過程をより正確に理解できるようになるであろう。

Research in general education has substantiated the fact that what teachers bring into the classroom in the form of beliefs, principles, and assumptions is central to the comprehension of what happens in the classroom (e.g., Calderhead, 1988; Clandinin, 1985; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Elbaz, 1981). In recent years, this line of inquiry has also emerged in the field of TESOL, where researchers have investi-

gated ESL teachers' beliefs regarding their practice in general (e.g., Almarza, 1996; Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1994, 1999; Woods, 1996) and specific aspects of teaching such as grammar teaching (Borg, 1998; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000), literacy instruction (Johnson, 1992), and decision-making processes (Johnson, 1992; Smith, 1996). By exploring the teachers' side of the stories from the inside out, this line of inquiry has added richness and depth to the already existing research, in which teachers have tended to be left out as a variable.

Among many areas that have not yet been addressed in this growing research domain is the effect that teachers' beliefs exert on corrective feedback. This is an important area especially since the provision of corrective feedback is often considered to be "the primary role of language teachers" (Chaudron, 1988, p. 132). An examination of the cognitive foundations that inform teachers' practices may contribute to a more complete understanding of corrective feedback processes.

Corrective feedback research as initially conducted two decades ago primarily described how teachers provide feedback to students and what options are available to teachers when correcting errors (e.g., Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1977, 1986; Day, Chenoweth, Chun, & Luppescu, 1984; Fanselow, 1977; Gaskill, 1980; Long, 1977; Nystrom, 1983). The focus of exploration has shifted since then, and recent corrective feedback studies have usually examined the relationship between teachers' corrective feedback behavior and its effects on students' linguistic outcomes (e.g., Carroll & Swain, 1993; Carroll, Swain, & Roberge, 1992; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lyster, 1998, 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Tomasello & Herron, 1988, 1989).

Among the subsets of inquiry developed two decades ago was teachers' reasoning behind their corrective feedback behavior. Some of the above researchers suggested investigations into teachers' "reasons" (Chaudron, 1986) and "rationale" (Fanselow, 1977) for the priorities they have for corrective feedback, their "attitude" (Nystrom, 1983) towards corrective feedback, and their "awareness," "beliefs," and "perception" (Long, 1977) with regard to various factors involved in corrective feedback, such as the objectives of a lesson and program requirements and the likely outcome of corrective feedback. Especially notable were Chaudon's (1986) and Nystrom's (1983) efforts to gain insight into teachers' reasoning as to why they provide corrective feedback the way they do. These studies were carried out with the hope of enhancing student L2 development in immersion programs (Chaudron, 1986) and to illustrate the interplay among variables that teachers introduce into the classroom when they provide corrective feedback (Nystrom, 1983). Thus, earlier researchers anticipated teachers' beliefs to be a worthy area of

inquiry in order to better understand teacher corrective feedback behavior and ultimately apply findings to teaching and learning. Unfortunately, however, this line of research has not been pursued.

The study reported here resumes the above research and examines the beliefs that appear to be at work behind two ESL teachers' corrective feedback. Specifically, it aims to examine what beliefs the teachers possess regarding classroom interaction and how they are reflected in their provision of corrective feedback. Thus, it examines not the effects of corrective feedback on students' linguistic outcomes, but the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and the corrective feedback that they provide. By investigating how teacher beliefs are related to corrective feedback, the author contends that a more careful look at teacher corrective feedback behavior is warranted, one that takes into consideration teachers' perspectives on how they utilize corrective feedback in their overall instructional scheme and what they hope to accomplish by it. The author will first delineate the method used in the data collection and analysis and then analyze the participating teachers' beliefs, their corrective feedback behavior, and the relationship between the two. Finally, I will discuss conclusions and future directions for corrective feedback and teacher belief research.

Method

The data come from a larger qualitative study conducted in the United States in which two ESL teachers' beliefs regarding classroom interaction were examined for two semesters. The present study is a secondary analysis of the above data. One lesson for each teacher was selected for detailed analysis. The selection was based on how well the lesson appeared to represent the teacher's beliefs (identified over the entire academic year) and how discernable the influence of these beliefs on corrective feedback seemed.

Participants

Jean (pseudonym) had been teaching ESL for almost 40 years, and Charles (pseudonym) had been teaching for about 10 years. The data collection was conducted at a two-year college with Jean and at a large university with Charles.

Procedures

The sources of data include: (a) nonparticipant observations of classroom instruction and field notes; (b) interviews; (c) letters from the

researcher addressed to the teachers and follow-up interviews about the letters; (d) a videotape of a lesson and a follow-up interview about it; and (e) documents such as handouts and ESL newspapers.

Observations and Field Notes

The author observed classes three times a week for Jean (43 observations over 17 weeks) and twice a week for Charles (27 observations over 16 weeks). During the observations, written notes were taken. Immediately upon completing each observation, more detailed field notes were constructed.

Interviews

Loosely structured interviews were conducted as soon as the teachers had free time for them. In order to gather as much information as possible concerning their beliefs about classroom interaction, all of the interviews were audiotaped and an "interview log" recommended by Merriam (1988) was constructed from the interviews. In the log, the propositional content of each interview was coded, and the corresponding tape positions were recorded.

Letter Interviews

At the end of each semester, the researcher sent an informal letter to each teacher with tentative interpretations of their beliefs about classroom interaction and of their teaching practice in general. After they had been given sufficient time to formulate their reactions to the letter, an open-ended interview was conducted in which each teacher's and my own interpretations about their teaching practice and beliefs about classroom interaction were discussed. This step was performed as a "member check" recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985), in order to determine whether my interpretations actually reflected the two teachers' perspectives. This data collection procedure was adapted from Clandinin (1985). The entire interview was audiotaped and transcribed.

Videotape Interviews

Three lessons were videotaped for each teacher, once toward the end of the first semester and twice in the middle of the second semester with two-to-three-week intervals between videotapings. After each taping, an interview was conducted in which the teachers were asked to point out any segments in the videotape that they thought illustrated

the beliefs that they had been discussing. The interviews were audiotaped and a log was kept. The purpose of this procedure was to watch the interaction from the teachers' perspectives and to gain more access to what they considered to be good interaction.

Documents

Class handouts and an ESL newspaper were collected to complement other data.

The Lessons

For Jean, a lesson from a high-elementary reading and speaking class is examined in this paper, since the influence of her beliefs on her corrective feedback behavior seemed to be clearly manifested there. In this lesson, Jean gave a whole-class oral competence and reading comprehension test, which, in effect, was a discussion about the readings that the students had done. She took the following steps to prepare and administer the discussion/test. Prior to the discussion/test, Jean assigned the students to read three articles she had chosen from a four-page ESL newspaper. On the day of the discussion/test, 18 students attended the class. Jean first distributed question sheets, and the students formed groups and brainstormed answers to the questions with one another. The students then sat around a table on which a tape recorder was placed. The basic format of the discussion/test involved the following: Jean read the questions and the students raised their hands or simply spoke up. Jean called out the names of those who indicated their willingness to answer the questions so that their names would be recorded onto the audiotape. Then she nominated a student who then answered. When the discussion/test was completed, Jean graded the students based on the number of times their names were recorded.

For Charles, a lesson from an elementary class will be examined in detail here since his beliefs about corrective feedback seemed to be more clearly delineated in this lesson. While Charles had his 14 students carry out several tasks in this lesson, two tasks are particularly relevant for the current study in that they reflected some of his beliefs, and most of the corrective feedback occurred during these tasks. One is a whole-class corrective feedback based on sentences the students had previously produced. The other was a question formation review exercise. In this exercise, Charles had prepared a transparency on which answers were printed and the question portions were left blank. He formed groups of three or four students and gave a transparency to each group. He then explained that it was an interview, and that the

students needed to provide the missing direct questions. During this activity, the students were left alone with Charles occasionally making procedural announcements. At the end of the activity, he explicitly corrected errors as he showed each transparency to the class.

Classifying Corrective Feedback

In order to gain a general picture of their corrective feedback in the lessons, the participating teachers' feedback turns following the students' errors were classified into five types. Corrective feedback was defined as instances in which the teachers explicitly or implicitly provided pedagogical feedback as to the well-formedness of the students' utterances. In other words, corrective feedback was considered a "didactic" teaching strategy (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 41) rather than a communication strategy. Therefore, the teachers' feedback turns immediately after communication breakdowns were not counted as corrective feedback. This was because the teachers' focus appeared to be on the message the students were trying to convey, and the communicative function of these turns seemed to override the corrective function.

The five corrective feedback types were explicit correction, recasts, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and translation. All the teacher turns containing corrective feedback were classified according to their corrective functions defined in Table 1. When multiple corrective feedback types were identified in one turn, all the types were counted. The distribution of the corrective feedback types for each teacher is displayed in Table 2.

Table 1: Definitions of the Feedback Types

Feedback Types	Definitions
Explicit Correction	The teacher supplies the correct linguistic form.
Recast	The teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error.
Metalinguistic Feedback	The teacher indicates that there is an error made in the student's utterance and provides directions as to how to repair it using metalinguistic language such as "Take one word off."
Elicitation	The teacher attempts to have the student provide the correct answer by focusing on one specific problem.

Table 1 (Continued)

Feedback Types	Definitions
	and directly asking the student to answer.
Translation	The teacher provides the English equivalent of the student's L1.

Table 2: Distribution of Feedback Types

Feedback Types	Jean (n=41)	Charles (n=32)
Explicit Correction	0 (0%)	8 (25%)
Recast	29 (71%)	0 (0%)
Metalinguistic Feedback	1 (2%)	17 (53%)
Elicitation	7 (17%)	7 (22%)
Translation	4 (10%)	0 (0%)

Results

Some General Concerns About the Interview Data

In the process of data collection, the participating teachers would sometimes discuss other issues indirectly related to classroom interaction such as teaching approaches or individual students, which did not necessarily reveal what the teachers thought about their actual classroom interaction. Two different types of data thus emerged from the interviews: data that were directly related to classroom interaction and data that were indirectly related. In this study, both types were utilized for the following two reasons. Upon analyzing the data, it was hypothesized that the phenomenon of the teachers' discussing indirectly related issues had something to do with how their beliefs, thoughts, knowledge, and assumptions are stored in their memory. The teachers' beliefs appeared to have formed webs within webs and were interrelated with other beliefs in a complex manner.[1] When classroom interaction was under discussion, it seemed that other thoughts, beliefs, knowledge, or assumptions were triggered and found their way into the discussion. The other possible reason for the teachers' discussing indirectly related issues was that classroom interaction is the interface where everything such as the curriculum, the teacher's decision mak-

ing, the instruction, and the student learning converge, as Ellis (1994) points out. Classroom interaction, thus, touches many different issues to which the two teachers could easily digress.

It seemed, therefore, that discarding those parts of the data that were only indirectly related to classroom interaction would result in an incomplete way of representing the two teachers' beliefs and how these beliefs exist in their inner worlds. Thus, the decision was made to retain and analyze both types of data.

Jean's Beliefs and Her Feedback Behavior

Jean's Beliefs

Of all the topics Jean raised regarding her beliefs about classroom interaction, Aesthetic Realism, a philosophy that she had been studying for 35 years, was probably the most influential for her. It touched upon many of the issues Jean discussed in the interviews, as it gave coherence and a deep philosophical meaning to her existence. Some of the principles of Aesthetic Realism mentioned included "to like the world," "seeing the world as well-structured," "seeing the world in terms of opposites," and "good will, tolerance, and respect among people."

Among all the principles of Aesthetic Realism, "to like the world" was the most fundamental for Jean. It is epitomized in a key sentence derived from the originator of Aesthetic Realism, which she mentioned in her course description each semester: The purpose of education is to like the world through knowing it. Jean stated in the interviews that a way to like the world is to see the world as well-structured. She believed that the students would eventually become autonomous learners when they saw a structure in the English language. This was because English would seem more "friendly" if perceived as well-structured, and when it seems "friendly," the students would be more likely to embrace English as their own language (Interview #12).

One way to see the world as well-structured, according to Jean, was to see it in terms of opposites. When two opposites are in a dynamic relationship, it is most "pleasing" and ideal (Interview #30). In the interviews, Jean discussed how the world is structured in terms of opposites with examples from English grammar and phonology. She talked about tense and lax vowels, past and nonpast, and singular and plural. For Jean, singular and plural, for instance, were not "just grammar abstractions" but what the world is, because the world is one and many. Jean believed, as far as her writing classes were concerned, that every lesson should be carefully planned to teach that English grammar rep-

resents what the world is. When that goal is achieved, the students will see that the outside world makes sense and looks friendlier.

Other Aesthetic Realism principles Jean referred to were good will, tolerance, and respect among students. These seemed to be related to the liking of the world in that they can contribute to the development of a congenial atmosphere among the students. Jean mentioned that the supportive relationship among the students made it easier for her to give more control to the students over their own learning, creating a more student-centered class.

In short, Jean's interpretation of these principles all pointed to one major educational belief she professed: student autonomy. Jean believed that every lesson should be student-centered, and that she was there to facilitate their learning as a resource person. Therefore, she welcomed it when the students took the initiative and asked her questions or voiced their opinions. In the following segment, reflecting on the part of the day's lesson where she had one student (Milton) write his short composition on the board, Jean observed:

Excerpt 1

> I was happy, because I saw the students taking over more. People were busily correcting Milton, dictating to him, telling him how to spell. I thought that was good communication among them. I said, "This is where I want to be. This is what makes me happy." I'm leaning on the door, and they're communicating among themselves. That's where the class should be (Interview #4).

Jean's notion of student-centeredness appeared to refer to moments when the students transcended whatever structure she herself had superimposed on a task and started spontaneous interaction on their own. Therefore, she was always looking for ways to induce those situations. Inviting visitors or taking the students outside and letting them hold real conversations were some of the ways she chose to maintain student-centeredness. The whole-class oral competence and reading comprehension discussion/test, selected for a detailed analysis in the present study and described below, was another way. She believed that when the challenge was linguistically at the right level for the students, and especially when they could get intrinsically interesting information from native speakers, the interaction that was generated could be quite good.

In the interview about the discussion/test, Jean mentioned that the assessment of the students in this task did not depend on their language ability or recall of facts, but on how many times they volunteered to speak. Therefore, how fluent, accurate, or elaborate their English

was did not matter as far as this discussion/test was concerned.[2] Generally speaking, Jean's beliefs about a speaking class, of which the present class was an example, was that the focus of each lesson should not be on the form, but on the content of what the students say. In other words, although linguistic accuracy was valued in her overall classroom practice, the quality of the students' English did not matter as much as the message they conveyed and their willingness to participate in oral activities. Therefore, her criterion for issuing a grade for the discussion/test was consistent with her beliefs about a speaking class in general.

Jean stated in the interview that the lesson sounded "more like a conversation" as opposed to a lesson or a test. Watching a videotape of the discussion/test, she said:

Excerpt 2

> The people are sitting around, talking, thinking, sometimes calling out. I'm not saying an American classroom is the ideal. No. On the contrary. But...there are many people in this class who want to be fully integrated into American classrooms. So if they feel this way in an American classroom, they're better off, where they can raise their hands, where they can call out, where they can say, "But, Jean, what do you think about...." I think that's great. And someone did ask me my opinion... But it is nice that they are treating me as a *participant* rather than the *manager* (Interview #31; italics added).

Here, Jean acknowledged that she wanted to be treated by the students as "a participant rather than the manager" of the discussion/test. She wanted to create real communication in her classroom by playing the role of a participant. The reason for that, Jean explained, was that she wanted the students to learn American classroom interaction strategies (i.e., rais[ing] their hands, call[ing]out, and ask[ing the teacher her] opinion) instead of waiting to be called upon by the teacher. Thus, playing the role of a participant appeared to be related to Jean's belief that students needed to learn American classroom behavior such as "volunteering" and "expressing opinions" if they wanted to be fully integrated into a mainstream classroom.

The way Jean structured the discussion/test is also indicative of some of her beliefs about classroom interaction. Her emphasis on the importance of student-initiated interaction is reflected in the way she structured the discussion as a test. She installed a mechanism in the discussion by which to train the students to move towards more autonomy with the hope that they would eventually volunteer to participate without the pressure of a test. Jean also fostered a supportive atmosphere

among the students instead of pitting them against each other. She not only structured the discussion/test in such a way that the students could assist one another, but she also articulated the importance of helping one another during the discussion/test.

Thus, some of Jean's beliefs were put into practice through the conceptualization and implementation of the discussion/test. She believed in student autonomy, student-centered and student-initiated classroom interaction and learning, emotionally charged interaction among the students, the focus placed on the students' messages in a speaking class, supportive relationships among the students, and the acquisition of American classroom behavior to an extent the students felt comfortable with.

Jean's Corrective Feedback Behavior

Table 2 demonstrates the overall corrective feedback pattern that she exhibited during the discussion/test. Although she occasionally gave fairly overt corrective feedback (i.e., elicitation) on grammatical, phonological, and lexical errors (17% of the feedback Jean gave in the lesson), the feedback she usually gave was recasts (71%). That is, the correction was covertly done without explicitly drawing the students' attention to the errors committed.

As for the purpose of recasts, it was often difficult to determine whether Jean was genuinely reacting to the students' utterances as a participant in the discussion, or whether she had pedagogical purposes beneath her friendly reactions. Therefore, it was decided to analyze recasts from both viewpoints. Excerpt 3 below demonstrates how the functions of recasts seemed to vary. Here, Beth was talking about her grandfather, who started smoking at a young age. Turns with corrective feedback are indicated with an asterisk.

Excerpt 3

	1	Beth: He::s ((pause)) the he:: ((pause))
	2	Jean: ((pretends to smoke))
	3	Ss: Hhh ((smile))
	4	Beth: =he:: smoke=
*	5	Jean: He smokes?
	6	Beth: =from: you young.
*	7	Jean: He smokes from from when he was young?
	8	Beth: No, no, no, not young. A:: what is the ((pause)) maybe:: eighteen.
	9	Jean: That's young.

	10 S?:	Very young.
*	11 Jean:	He smokes from: he he he started smoking when he was young.
	12 Beth:	He never stopped.

Three sentences (lines 5, 7, and 11) were identified as recasts. On the one hand, they appeared to be corrective feedback, especially if the gradual development of the sentences is taken into account. The third sentence (line 11) especially had a characteristic of corrective feedback. The prolongation of the final consonant of the word "from" indicated that Jean was possibly thinking about correcting the sentence. Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) call this a repair "initiator" (p. 367), because it signals that a possible correction may follow immediately afterwards. Immediately after the repair "initiator," Jean reformulated the sentence and produced another sentence "he he he started smoking when he was young" (line 11), which was similar to the previous one but sounded more idiomatic to native speakers of English. Jean, therefore, appeared to provide Beth with grammatical sentences through recasts.

At the same time, these reactions looked very much like genuine responses, especially when the nonverbal cues were considered. By directing her posture and eye gaze exclusively towards Beth and providing ample nonverbal cues such as smiles, nods, eye movements, and a gesture mimicking smoking, Jean succeeded in portraying herself as an interlocutor who was genuinely interested in what Beth had to say.

To summarize, Jean seemed to play two roles in utilizing recasts. On the one hand, she provided the students with grammatical sentences through recasts in the discussion. On the other, these recasts looked very much like genuine responses, especially when the non-verbal cues that she often utilized were taken into account. She focused simultaneously on the form and the content of the students' utterances by playing the dual role of teacher and participant. She achieved this through recasts.

Jean's Purposes for Corrective Feedback

In the discussion/test, Jean wished to reinforce what she always taught: that students should take the initiative, volunteer, and express themselves. This was based on her overarching beliefs in student-centered lessons and students' proactive (as opposed to reactive or passive) learning and communication styles. Thus, Jean's primary purposes for this particular activity were philosophical, and she assessed the

outcome accordingly. Recasts as a form of corrective feedback enabled her to encourage and scaffold the students' willingness to participate in the discussion/test and voice their opinions, while concurrently correcting their errors.

Charles' Beliefs and His Feedback Behavior

Charles' Beliefs

Like Jean, Charles possessed various beliefs directly and indirectly connected to classroom interaction. One of the topics that Charles mentioned throughout the data collection process was the culture of his workplace. He frequently expressed reservations about certain practices within the program such as teaching from a theme-based syllabus. He agreed with the principles of theme-based teaching and with the program view that there should be a thematic flow between activities, and that in these activities, a lesson should move from "lower" to "higher-order" thinking. However, he was concerned about the fact that the teaching of grammar tended to be less valued in a theme-based syllabus.

Another work-related issue that Charles occasionally discussed was communicating with the students in a variety of ways. Since various ways of communication were encouraged at his workplace, and since this was discussed in postobservation conferences held as a part of staff development, Charles incorporated different ways of givingcorrective feedback and of conducting lessons involving teacher-fronted as well as student-centered lessons and individual seatwork as well as pair/group work. He also issued class newsletters, trying different ways of communicating procedural information. Furthermore, Charles had learned at graduate school to explore different ways of communicating and see what differences small changes make. This training also had an influence on his teaching practice.

Among various beliefs Charles discussed, one major issue emerged as particularly crucial to his teaching practice. On the one hand, it was important for him that the students use whatever grammar, vocabulary, or idiomatic expressions they learned as they interacted in class. On the other hand, what he aimed for in his class, and what gave him considerable satisfaction when it occurred, was to have an activity where the interaction was concurrently "structured" and "unstructured."

First, Charles' key word, "structuredness," should be explained in more detail. Early on in the interview process, Charles began using the word "structured." Since its meaning was not apparent, he was asked to define it.

Excerpt 4

Charles: Part of structured for me is giving them a lot of freedom, but if they don't know where the boundaries are, I think I do.... It sometimes...gets too chatty for what I want it to be like, but they may be picking up these cards and looking at the pictures, saying "What is it used for?" "It's used for screwing screws." A lot of laughing. "Doesn't screwing also mean something else?" And I am like "Yeah."... It's still a structured activity. I am listening for gerunds and infinitives and passive voice...we are still doing vocabulary. There are also other things happening at the same time. That for me is still structured because I see an anchor in the activity.

RM: What do you mean by anchor?

Charles: Technically what the focus is even if just ( ) gerunds and infinitives, these pictures, the vocabulary, passive voice. So there are a few things I'm watching for, a few things they should be watching for (Interview #3).

Charles appeared to be using the term "structured" in two different senses. One meaning referred to the language that the students needed to learn. Language, in this sense, could be grammar, vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, or the sociolinguistic aspects of the language. This suggests that Charles had a concept of language form similar to that advocated by Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell (1997), which included not only sentence-bound rules, but also "higher level organizational principles or rules and normative patterns or conventions governing language use beyond the sentence level" (p. 147). The other meaning of "structured" referred to a framework that Charles himself gave to a language-learning task when he set it up. "Unstructured," on the other hand, was always used in only one sense. It meant completely spontaneous conversation that went beyond the framework set up by the task at hand. In other words, the teacher did not tell the students to conduct an unstructured conversation. It was unplanned, genuine interaction.

In the card activity that Charles briefly discussed in Excerpt 4, the interaction was structured because Charles, the teacher, had set up the whole activity. Besides, there were certain grammar structures or vocabulary items he wanted the students to practice. However, it was also unstructured because it provided opportunities for spontaneous interaction to take place.

Charles felt less successful when the students did not use the gram-

mar or vocabulary that he wanted them to use in the activities he had set up. For example, on April 2, he asked the students to provide possible reasons for not buying computers, which was a warm-up activity for a passage they were going to read later on. Reflecting on that part of the lesson, he observed:

Excerpt 5

Charles: My impression was that it was a lot lighter than I wanted it to be. Originally I was intending it to be more structured. "He doesn't want to buy a computer because," and do a lot of "because" type of clauses. And that didn't happen at all, because they started offering their own answers. There weren't any "because" in it. It was "He wanted to do this."

RM: What do you mean, "lighter"?

Charles: Perhaps less structured on language, and getting them to be aware of getting it grammatical.

RM: What was the kind of language you were expecting?

Charles: On the surface level, I thought there were going to be "because" kind of reasons, causes.... In order to put some structure in there, I said, "Use the word 'by'." And I said, "Use the word 'help' in the sentence." Put those two together and they formed another sentence, using those two words. That is the kind of thing I would have liked to have continued to sort of play with multiple versions of the same answer and make it more of a language lesson (Interview #3).

Charles felt that the interaction was "less structured" than he expected it to be, because the students did not use the language he wanted them to practice. He wanted them to be aware of the grammar when they were doing the activity.

Charles believed that "unstructured" interaction was indispensable, because the students ultimately needed to achieve "real communication," and they needed to learn to draw on their own resources in order to communicate. However, he also thought that explicit focus on the language was essential, because the students might not know what they were practicing unless they consciously paid attention to language, and as a consequence, their second language acquisition might not be enhanced as much. Thus, Charles seemed to share with some SLA researchers the position that form-focused instruction within communicative contexts facilitates second language learning (e.g., Celce-Murcia et al., 1997; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Spada & Lightbown, 1993).

Charles' way of balancing these two contradicting elements was to create tasks which were fairly clearly defined in terms of the language he wanted the students to produce, but which provided some opportunities for disciplined but spontaneous interaction to occur.

Some of Charles' beliefs were thus put into practice in the tasks examined in this study. He believed in communication between the teacher and the students in various different modes and a focus on both communication and language.

Charles' Corrective Feedback Behavior

As for Charles' corrective feedback behavior, Table 2 demonstrates the overall corrective feedback pattern that he exhibited during the lesson. He performed explicit correction 25% of the time. He also provided metalinguistic feedback half of the time (53%) and showed elicitation moves 22% of the time. That is to say, in every feedback turn, Charles demonstrated a clear preference for overtly indicating that an error had been made.

As was mentioned above, Charles incorporated different ways of giving corrective feedback in deference to the program policy. This was observed in the current lesson also. The following are some of the examples of metalinguistic feedback Charles provided the most during the lesson. They are selected from the whole-class corrective feedback task. Each student had previously written a dialogue of an interview between a prospective employer looking for a nanny and a job candidate. Some of the erroneous sentences extracted from the interviews were printed on an OHP, and the class corrected them as Charles read them out loud.

Excerpt 6

	1	Charles:	((reads from the OHP)) Why do you find a job as a nanny?
•	2		A difficulty might be this word. ((points at "find"))

Excerpt 7

	1	Charles:	((reads a sentence on the OHP)) Number Four. How many times
•	2		does it take from your home to mine? I want something about time.
	3	S?:	How long does it take?

Excerpt 8

	1	Charles:	Now Eight. ((reads from the OHP)) What kind of household
	2		education do you use for your children?
*	3		There's, I think there's an important verb missing.

Excerpt 9

	1	Charles:	((reads from the OHP)) If I took care of your children, what would
	2		you want me to do something special? There are several ways to do
*	3		it. Take one word off.

In Excerpt 6 (line 2), Charles pointed at the word posing a problem, but he did not locate problematic words in the other excerpts. In Excerpt 8 (line 3), he mentioned a missing part of speech, whereas he referred to the semantic nuance that the sentence should carry in Excerpt 7 (line 2). Moreover, he indicated that something should be added in Excerpt 8 (line 4), whereas he suggested that something should be discarded in Excerpt 9 (line 3). Charles thus seemed to consciously vary his approach to the provision of corrective feedback. He might have been able to do so with more ease, since he was dealing with written data as opposed to on-line oral communication.

Charles' Purposes for Corrective Feedback

Charles expressed the belief that a focus on both communication and language in the sense that Celce-Murcia, et al. (1997) used was central to second language learning. His reasoning for an explicit focus on language was that the students needed to be aware of what they were practicing. Such a belief was reflected in his overt corrective feedback.

Corrective Feedback with Different Purposes

The above two teachers' cases reveal that behind teaching behavior exist teachers' thoughts and beliefs, and that their teaching is influenced by these. Jean and Charles conducted their teaching, which included corrective feedback, taking into consideration their students' linguistic, personal, and sociocultural development, the purposes of the class, and the program at large. Furthermore, the two teachers had

their own firm beliefs with regard to second language acquisition and socialization. How they taught appeared to be determined through the interplay of all these factors.

Each teacher's corrective feedback was compatible with his or her beliefs. Charles' overt feedback was supported by his firm belief that the structure of the language plays a crucial role in second language acquisition. Thus, the purpose of his correction was largely linguistic. Conversely, Jean had philosophical objectives in mind; she did not seem to be always aiming at the enhancement of student linguistic outcome, as far as the lesson observed was concerned. Her covert corrective feedback (recasts) was supported by her beliefs, many of which were philosophical rather than linguistic. Instructional purposes may vary from linguistic to disciplinary to sociocultural, depending on students, classes, programs, and schools, to name just a few possible factors, and teachers' corrective feedback may well be influenced by such purposes. Each teacher's use of specific corrective feedback types seemed to be driven by instructional beliefs based on the interplay of all the above factors.

Conclusion

This investigation of two ESL teachers' beliefs and their influence on corrective feedback behavior suggests that a closer look at teacher corrective feedback behavior is called for, taking into consideration teachers' perspectives on how to best utilize corrective feedback in their overall instructional scheme and what they hope to accomplish by it. Furthermore, it implies that the definition of the effectiveness of corrective feedback should include attitudinal changes in students as well as linguistic changes. The outcome of corrective feedback should be judged based on the specific purposes that teachers have for their behavior; their corrective feedback and its success might be misinterpreted if researchers' preferred purposes and those of teachers are not identical.

SLA researchers have tended to provide teachers with research findings in the belief that teaching will be improved and learning enhanced if teachers act on those findings. Thus, the research approach has been essentially top-down. In addition to this type of research, however, this study implies that researchers also need to take a bottom-up approach, tapping into and codifying the epistemological and experiential reservoir that exists behind the teachers' teaching behavior (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Shulman, 1987). This reservoir, which contains their thoughts, ideals, and hopes about teaching, is not readily acces-

sible from their surface teaching behavior. Therefore, researchers need to probe into the teachers' mental worlds without prematurely superimposing their own research agenda on it.

Corrective feedback is a perpetual and complex issue for many ESL/EFL teachers (Allwright, 1975; Long, 1977). The intricate decision-making processes that teachers go through when reacting to student errors have been delineated by various researchers (e.g., Allwright, 1975; Chaudron, 1977; Long, 1977). Preservice teachers would, therefore, particularly benefit from learning about experienced teachers' beliefs behind their corrective feedback behavior. Knowledge about corrective feedback thus acquired may be more holistic than quick-fix type corrective feedback techniques in that corrective feedback is embedded in the experienced teachers' uniquely amalgamated instructional base that informs practice. In this instructional base, which is similar to Freeman and Johnson's (1998) notion of "content" or Shulman's (1987) "pedagogical content knowledge," research findings, theories, teaching approaches, and the like are transformed through teachers' unique sensitivities, their particular educational backgrounds, teaching experience, and workplace culture, and assimilated into their practice as is evidenced in Jean and Charles' cases. Because theories and teaching approaches are already translated into practice to suit the urgent needs of daily classroom life, learning about corrective feedback within this instructional base may assist novice teachers to see how others make sense of theory and connect it to practice. Research into teachers' beliefs needs to be included in corrective feedback research, and efforts must be made to "map out" the reservoir that exists in the hinterland of teachers' mental worlds (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

Since the present study is a secondary analysis of the data from a larger qualitative study in which the participating teachers' beliefs about classroom interaction in general were researched, it has examined how their overarching (as opposed to local) beliefs are related to their corrective feedback behavior. Future research should focus more on teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback. Moreover, teachers with a wider range of teaching experience and educational background should be studied. Through examining different cases, similarities and differences among various teachers would become more evident, which might contribute towards more holistic theory building. Finally, since teachers' beliefs can have a strong influence on how they conceptualize their daily teaching practice, not only corrective feedback, but also all aspects of teaching should be reexamined from the standpoint of teachers' beliefs. Only then could a more complete understanding of teaching processes be achieved.

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Notes

1. Pajares (1992) points out a similar phenomenon about beliefs.
2. Jean also graded her students in other, more traditional ways.

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Appendix

Transcript Conventions

[ ]	Overlapping utterances.
=	Used to link different parts of a single speaker's utterance.
a::	Extension of a sound.
((nods))	Non-verbal actions.
( )	Unintelligible utterances.

日本の高校生英語学習者によるノート・テーキング方略使用
(Japanese High School EFL Learners' Note-taking Strategies)

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In an English language classroom, learners often write items in a notebook, a textbook, and so on. Note-taking is reported as one of the most frequently used language learning strategies. Japanese high school teachers of English often give instruction in this area and sometimes use the products of the strategy use as material for evaluation. However, not much research has been conducted into the use of such strategies by Japanese high school EFL learners. In this study, behavioral activities and related mental states are included in the concept, "Note-Taking Strategy."

This study is focused on the following three aims:

1) To present a questionnaire to measure learners' Note-Taking Strategy use, in order to encourage teachers of English to apply it in their classrooms
2) To present the survey results, from which general tendencies can be assumed, in order to make it possible to compare the tendencies of strategy use by individual learners or by a certain group of learners with those of general Japanese high school EFL learners
3) To discuss the possibility of instructing learners to use a Note-Taking Strategy, with the focus on facilitating their English language learning

Firstly, question items used in previous research are revised in light of the tendencies of subjects' responses, face validities, validities of analysis with latent factor structures, and so on. As a result, the questionnaire consists of 30 items: 14 cover behavioral aspects, and 16 cover mental aspects.

Secondly, a large number (1,895) of Japanese high school EFL learners from 25 schools participated in the survey. As a result, it can be assumed to a certain extent that the results are reliable to describe general tendencies of Japanese high school EFL learners. A table of frequency distribution for all items is shown as the data for further research and to provide the criteria for comparison.

Finally, latent variables (factors) as well as observed ones (question items) are included in statistically sophisticated analyses: Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with the Maximum Likelihood (ML) Method and Oblique Promax Rotation, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with ML for estimation of solution and missing values, and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), likewise with ML. The EFAs are used to seek the most parsimonious solution such as number of assumed factors (latent variables) to explain observed variables. The CFAs are used for examining the validity of the solution obtained by the EFAs and to investigate correlation among factors. The function of SEM is to explain degrees of causal effect from mental aspects to behavioral ones and from behavioral aspects to learning achievement. The SEM solution shows the following characteristics:

1) Behavioral aspects of Note-Taking Strategy can be divided into two categories. Firstly, there are rehearsal strategies, which help learners to repeat language materials. The second category covers structural strategies, which help learners make connections between learned language materials.
2) Learners tend to be given instruction only about rehearsal strategies. Instructions will be more effective if they include ways to reorganize learned information.
3) Mental aspects are divided into four categories. Two of them, "trying to select information" and "noticing the effects of writing itself and reviewing," can reasonably be said to facilitate learners' use of behavioral Note-Taking Strategies. The others, "strategy preference" and "attention to evaluation," hardly do so. In addition, learners' attention to evaluation has little correlation with any of the other categories.
4) Though learners are sometimes required to submit their notebooks or other evidence of learning, such requirements seem to have little effect on learning English itself. Demonstrating to learners the functions of the strategies, and making them experience these functions, are necessary for further strategy use and achievement.

Finally, some issues for further research into the development of Note-Taking Strategies in Japanese high schools are presented.

学習者が学習内容をノートブックに書くという行動は、教室環境における言語学習において、非常によく観察される。本研究ではこの方略の行動的側面とそれに関連する心理的側面とに焦点を当て、ノート・テーキング方略という「学習者が学習に関連した事項を書く際の行動的または心理的な活動や状態」に関して日本の高校生英語学習者に対する調査が行われた。そして1)ノート・テーキング方略を測定するのに適した質問紙を作成して提示し、2)学習者の一般的な傾向を想定できるような資料を得て、3)分析結果から、英語学習をより促進させるようなノート・テーキング方略指導への可能性が議論される。その結果、行動的側面はリハーサル方略と体制化方略とに2分され、両面の指導が提案された。また、心理的側面に関しては、ノート・テーキング方略使用の機能を提示すること、実感させること、を意図した指導が提案された。

習者が学習内容をノートブックに書くという行動は、教室環境における言語学習において、非常によく観察される(O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985; White, 1996)。また、近年は言語学習方略研究が盛んであるが、その

一因と思われるOxford (1990)による質問紙やO'Malley& Chamot (1990)による言語学習方略の一覧表においてもこのような方略はとりあげられている。

本研究ではこの行動を学習方略と捉え、ノート・テーキング方略として焦点が当てられる。この方略は学習者が自分自身のために行うものであるために、個人差や多様性を許容すべきである(達川, 1998)とする見方が一般的であると思われる。ただし、教室における指導の一環としてノートブックに記入する形式が指定されたりノートブックなどが評価材料とされたりする場合があることも報告されている(広島大学附属福山中・高等学校英語科, 1997)。また、ノート・テーキング方略は学習者が頻繁に教室で使用し、指導や評価にも関連する事項であるが、日本の学校における英語学習者を対象に研究された例は少ない。そのため、現状の調査や方略指導の可能性などを探索的に調査する必要性が感じられる。

White (1996)はノート・テーキングに焦点を当て、学習者やノートブックの観察、学習者へのインタビューなどから、より詳細な分類を示している。行動的側面と心理的側面の双方からノート・テーキング方略を捉えており、行動的側面として5つに下位分類を施している。また心理的側面としては、学習に働きかける機能として3つの機能、学習者がさらされている言語材料に払う注意に関して2つの仮説を提示している。

行動的側面に挙げられるものはNote-taking (概念を短縮して書く)、Writing Out (数回書写する)、Listing (語彙をリスト状にする)、Noting Down (キーワードを書く)、Highlighting/Underlining (キーワードや重要点を強調する)である(White, 1996)。これらはO'Malley& Chamot (1990)やOxford (1990)には含まれないものもあり、この5つの下位分類はより包括的なものであるといえよう。

心理的側面に関しては、ノート・テーキング方略の使用が学習に働きかける機能として、Encoding (書くことが即時的な復習となり、学習を促進する)、External-Storage (書かれたものが記録として後の復習に有用となり、学習を促進する)、Generative (情報が既知か未知か判断したり取捨選択したりしてから書くことによって重要な情報が選択され、学習を促進する)が挙げられ、これら3つの点から学習を促進するものであるとされている。それぞれの機能によってもわかれているが、書くという行動の最中(Encoding)、以降(External-storage)、以前(Generative)というように、行動との時間関係によっても分類されるものであろう。そして、行動と学習内容に向ける注意との関係という観点からは、Attention (注意がさらに得られる)とDistraction (注意が削がれる)の2側面が提示された。また堀野・市川(1997)や久保(1999)に主張されるように、心理的側面が学習方略使用という行動的側面、そして学習達成に影響を与えるとするモデルは妥当なものと考えられる。

そのため、前田(2000a)に続いて本研究においても、心理的側面を含めることとする。すなわち、本研究におけるノート・テーキング方略は

「学習者が学習に関連した事項を書く際の行動的または心理的な活動や状態」とされる。

Maeda (2000)、前田(2000a)の一連の研究においてはそれぞれ、ノート・テーキング方略の行動的側面、心理的側面、行動的側面と心理的側面の関係、という観点から質問紙による高校生を対象とした調査結果が分析され、学習達成への因果の強さが推論された。使用された質問紙は、White (1996)によるリストに含まれる行動的側面についてはそれを行うかどうか、心理的側面についてはそれを意識するかどうか、ということを尋ねるものであった。そして、調査対象となる学習者集団に授業者として関わる筆者によって、学習者の授業中の観察、および、ノートブックなどの観察などから、特徴的と思われる点がいくつか挙げられた。これらは質問紙作成の段階から、ある高等学校1校の生徒を対象として行われたものである。したがって調査も結果の解釈もその学校の背景に充分に留意して行われたものであるために、一般性に欠けるものとなっている。しかしながら、近年の思潮を加味した統計的手順を用いていることが特徴として挙げられよう。

本研究においては、ノート・テーキング方略に関する本研究の目的が以下のように3点提示される。まず、1)日本人高校生英語学習者が使用するノート・テーキング方略を測定するための質問紙を作成し提示する。そして、2)様々な背景や習熟度を持つ学習者の調査結果を提示することにより、日本の高校生英語学習者の一般的な傾向を想定できるような資料を得る。最終的に、3)分析結果から、英語学習をより促進させるようなノート・テーキング方略指導への示唆を得る。本論を進めるにあたり、この3点の目的に沿って、学習者の現状を把握するための手段を提供し、一般的な傾向を示すことによって個々の場面との比較を可能にし、そして、教室における方略指導を模索することが、研究全体を通しての意義とされる。

調査

材料

調査にあたって行動的側面に関する質問項目14問、心理的側面に関する質問項目16問の、計30問が準備された。これらはMaeda (2000)、前田(2000a)の一連の研究で用いられた質問文をもとにして、一部改訂が加えられたものである。回答は同様に5件法とし、「1. 全然、あるいはほとんどあてはまらない」「2. 通常あてはまらない」「3. いくらかあてはまる」「4. 通常あてはまる」「5. 常に、あるいはほとんどあてはまる」とした。項目について具体的には、まずWhite (1996)による行動的側面の5つの下位分類それぞれを行うかどうか、心理的側面に関してはそれらを意識するかどうか、ということを尋ねる質問項目が含まれる。そして、教室で英語学習を行う高校生の学習過程や学習後のノートブックを観察することから作成された項目群についても同様に使用された。

また、英語学習の達成を測定する指標としては、前田(2001)と同じC-test (see Appendix)が用いられた。さまざまな観点からの観測変数を準備することが望ましいが、採点容易性や被調査者にとっての答え易さという観点からC-testの形式が採用された。問題文に関しては、数名の高校生などに予備的に実施し、5分程度の制限時間として回答しやすさや時間が妥当であるような問題文が選ばれた。そして、全員が質問紙に回答を終えるのを待ってからテストにとりかかるように依頼が行われた。

被調査者

様々な背景や習熟度を持つ学習者を対象とした調査を行うことが目的とされたが、実施容易性の観点から筆者の所属する広島大学英語教育学会において高等学校に勤務する会員に対して個人的に依頼が行われた。その結果、本調査に関しては主に中国、四国、九州地方の25高等学校の協力を得ることができた。合計1,895(男子1,027, 女子868)の有効回答を得ることができたことと、後述するようにC-test得点がほぼ正規分布とみなせるものであることから、かなりの程度で一般的な傾向を反映するものであると解釈されよう。

分析手順

分析においては特に質問紙調査の分析手順と結果の提示について留意点を指摘した前田·大和(2000)や前田(2000b)を参考にした。質問紙の部分に関しては、各項目に対する回答を度数分布と分布の中心傾向によって示された後、探索的因子分析と検証的因子分析が行われた。すなわち、実際に測定された観測変数(質問項目)のみを直接的に数値として扱うのではなく、それらの背後に因子(潜在変数、構造変数)を仮定して、それら因子が観測変数に因果(影響)を及ぼしているという前提のもとで分析が行われた。

探索的因子分析においては最尤法による推定とプロマックス回転による因子軸の回転が施された。そして、最もデータをうまく説明できていて、解釈することが可能であるような因子数が模索され、それぞれの因子から観測変数への因果の強さが推定された。また検証的因子分析においては、探索的因子分析において得られた解の妥当性が検証するとともに、探索的因子分析においては不安定な因子間相関が推定された。

そして、C-test得点へのそれぞれの因子からの因果の強さを分析する際には、構造方程式モデリングが使用された。このことにより、因子間の因果関係を推定すると同時に、モデルのデータへのあてはまりのよさについても検討できるものとなった。

結果と解釈

被調査者全体の、各質問項目への解答傾向は表1に示される。左の列より、項目番号、5件法の回答それぞれがその項目の総回答数に占める

割合(%)、その項目の総回答数、5件法を1から5に得点化した場合の平均、標準偏差、歪度、尖度である。結果的にいくつかの項目において正規分布を逸脱していると思われる分布が得られたが、項目ごとの平均値は最小で2.2、最大で3.9と、極端に偏った分布を示すものではないと解釈された。そして、これら30観測変数をもとにして、後の分析が行われた。

行動面に関する探索的因子分析(最尤法、プロマックス回転、欠損値はペア単位削除)結果は、表2にて示される。因子数を順次減らして再分析を行った結果、この2因子解を採用することに決定した。原則として因子パターンが絶対値で.20を超えるものについて、その因子からその観測変数への因果があるものと仮定した。その後、欠損値を最尤法で推定して検証的因子分析が行われた。適合度指標に関しては被調査者が多いことと欠損値の推定を行ったことにより、CFIとRMSEAに着目した。モデルのデータへの適合に関しては、値が.900以上で充分な適合とされるCFIが.990、値が.080を下回ればある程度充分な適合とされるRMSEAが.064であり良好であったために、このモデルが採用された。

因子1は項目27、20、17などに強い負荷を与えており、概括すると情報の維持や精緻化を反復によって行う「リハーサル方略」として解釈される。また、因子2(項目19, 02, 11など)は学習材料の各要素を全体として相互に関連をもつようにまとまりをつくる「体制化

表1: 各項目に対する回答と基本統計量

Item	1	2	3	4	5	*n*	*M*	*S.D.*	Skewness	Kurtosis
01	11.5	17.4	23.9	22.2	25.0	1895	3.3	1.3	-0.2	-1.1
02	20.0	27.1	28.8	15.2	8.9	1895	2.7	1.2	0.3	-0.8
03	18.8	24.0	29.8	16.9	10.4	1894	2.8	1.2	0.2	-0.9
04	14.2	19.9	29.7	19.3	16.6	1888	3.0	1.3	0.0	-1.0
05	17.6	20.4	25.5	16.2	20.2	1893	3.0	1.4	0.0	-1.2
06	6.6	9.6	28.9	28.6	26.2	1894	3.6	1.2	-0.5	-0.5
07	9.6	16.3	29.0	25.8	19.2	1893	3.3	1.2	-0.2	-0.8
08	9.0	13.4	29.4	26.9	21.2	1894	3.4	1.2	-0.3	-0.7
09	8.7	13.6	28.2	28.0	21.6	1895	3.4	1.2	-0.4	-0.7
10	23.5	20.1	25.4	16.6	14.4	1895	2.8	1.4	0.2	-1.1

Item	1	2	3	4	5	*n*	*M*	*S.D.*	Skewness	Kurtosis
11	30.0	28.3	23.7	11.7	6.2	1895	2.4	1.2	0.6	-0.6
12	22.9	25.4	28.6	14.8	8.3	1895	2.6	1.2	0.3	-0.8
13	9.8	14.1	31.2	26.2	18.7	1895	3.3	1.2	-0.3	-0.7
14	7.8	9.1	24.4	28.1	30.6	1895	3.6	1.2	-0.6	-0.5
15	19.1	27.8	32.6	13.3	7.2	1893	2.6	1.2	0.3	-0.6
16	14.6	19.8	29.8	20.8	15.0	1895	3.0	1.3	0.0	-1.0
17	4.7	7.6	17.2	29.6	40.9	1895	3.9	1.1	-1.0	0.1
18	10.2	17.4	33.7	23.8	14.9	1893	3.2	1.2	-0.1	-0.7
19	30.3	33.4	26.0	6.7	3.5	1895	2.2	1.1	0.7	-0.1
20	12.6	15.0	23.4	20.3	28.7	1895	3.4	1.4	-0.3	-1.1
21	11.4	18.4	35.7	19.5	14.9	1891	3.1	1.2	0.0	-0.8
22	30.7	33.4	20.4	10.7	4.9	1894	2.3	1.1	0.7	-0.3
23	21.8	25.7	32.5	14.4	5.5	1893	2.6	1.1	0.3	-0.7
24	22.4	26.9	28.9	12.6	9.3	1895	2.6	1.2	0.4	-0.7
25	24.4	32.8	25.5	11.7	5.4	1892	2.4	1.1	0.5	-0.5
26	29.1	37.6	23.0	6.6	3.6	1893	2.2	1.0	0.8	0.2
27	9.5	11.2	23.1	28.2	28.0	1895	3.5	1.3	-0.5	-0.7
28	14.7	24.3	33.6	17.8	9.4	1892	2.8	1.2	0.1	-0.7
29	11.8	20.3	35.7	22.0	10.2	1894	3.0	1.1	0.0	-0.7
30	28.6	27.1	27.5	11.6	5.0	1891	2.4	1.2	0.5	-0.6

方略(辰野, 1997)」とされた。そしてこれら2因子の特徴として、前者は教師による指導がよく行われているもの、後者はその頻度が少なく多分に自主的であるもの、というとらえ方もできることが挙げられよう。

心理面の16観測変数に関しても同様に、5因子解を求めた後に因子数を順次減らして探索的因子分析(最尤法、プロマックス回転、欠損値はペア単位削除)が行われ、4因子解が解釈可能性を基準に採用された(表3)。行動面と同様に検証的因子分析を行い、モデルとデータはあまり乖離していないという結論に達した(CFI=.990, RMSEA=.062)。

表2: 行動面の探索的因子分析結果(パターン行列)
と検証的因子分析結果(因子間相関)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Communalities
01. 覚えるために、何回か同じものを書く	.50	-.08	.21
02. 授業中に書いたノートをまとめなおして書いて勉強する	-.02	.54	.28
04. 自分でそうするようにしている、ノートの書き方がある	.33	.33	.33
05. 教科書にある英文を、ノートに写して書く	.27	.28	.24
08. キーワードとなる単語や表現などを書きとめる	.45	.27	.40
10. ノートに、教科書の勉強しているところのページや見出し、そのときの日付などを書く	.04	.46	.23
11. 単語や熟語、表現などとその意味を書いたリストや表を作る	.08	.51	.31
16. 新しく出た単語やわからない単語などの意味や発音をノートなどに書く	.58	.14	.44
17. 黒板に書いてあることをノートなどに書く	.65	-.12	.35
19. 勉強している内容を記号などを用いて短縮してノートなどに書く	-.17	.64	.32
20. 英文を日本語に訳したものをノートなどに書く	.69	-.04	.44
22. 他の人のノートを借りて比べてみる	-.17	.57	.25
23. 先生や他の人が口で説明していることなどを書きとめる	.33	.28	.28
27. 線を引いたり色を変えたり印をつけたりして強調する	.76	-.19	.46

Inter-Factor Correlations	Factor 1	Factor 2
Factor 1「リハーサル方略」	1.00	.43
Factor 2「体制化方略」	.43	1.00

表3: 心理面の探索的因子分析結果(パターン行列)と検証的因子分析結果(因子間相関)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Communalities
03. ノートを書くことが好きである	.15	.30	.21	-.12	.31
06. ノートなどに書くと勉強になると思う	-.15	.62	.21	-.01	.42
07. 勉強していることを、後で復習するときのために書く	.03	.73	-.12	-.06	.49
09. ノートなどに書くときには、復習するときに見やすいように書く	.09	.55	.11	-.04	.45
12. ノートなどに書く前に、それが自分にとって重要なことがらかどうか考える	.58	-.14	.16	-.06	.31
13. ノートなどに書いていると、勉強している気分になる	-.01	-.05	.88	.03	.73
14. ノートの見た目がきれいだとうれしく思う	-.02	.19	.50	.06	.38
15. ノートなどにはどのようなことを書けば勉強になるか知っている	.51	.19	-.09	.01	.40
18. ノートなどに書いていると、勉強している内容にもっと注意を向けることができ、深く理解できる	.31	.46	-.02	-.10	.49
21. 成績を良くするためにノートなどに書く	.08	.44	-.01	.30	.35
24. ノートに書くのは点検されたときに評価を良くするためだ	-.09	.08	.01	.76	.59
25. 覚えるために書くことと、復習するときのために書くことを分けて考えている	.43	.13	-.19	.11	.25
26. ノートなどを書くのは勉強しているように見せるためだ	.15	-.17	.06	.60	.37
28. ノートなどに書くときには、書こうとすることと自分が知っていることとを結び付けて考えて、重要だと思うものを選ぶ	.74	-.05	-.04	-.01	.49
29. 書くことによって内容をもっと深く理解することができる	.29	.29	.19	-.02	.40
30. 他の人がどのようなことをノートなどに書いているのかを気にかける	.35	.00	.09	.14	.17

Inter-Factor Correlations	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1 「書く前の情報の取捨選択志向」	1.00	.75	.34	-.01
Factor 2 「書くこと自体と後の復習志向」	.75	1.00	.56	-.04
Factor 3 「書くことに対する好意的志向」	.34	.56	1.00	.15
Factor 4 「書くことがもたらす評価志向」	-.01	-.04	.15	1.00

因子1は項目28、12、15に大きく負荷を与え、情報の取捨選択を意味する"Generative"を指すものと解釈できるため、便宜上「書く前の情報の取捨選択志向」とされる。同様に因子2(項目07, 06, 09など)は"Encoding"と"External-storage"の2特徴を併せ持つことから「書くこと自体と後の復習志向」、因子3(項目13, 14)は気分的な好意を暗示するため「書くことに対する好意的志向」、因子4(項目24, 26)は「書くことがもたらす評価志向」とされる。

これまでの結果をもとに、心理面の4因子についてはモデルを簡略にするため心理面全体としての高次因子(「心理面全体」)を仮定し、心理面から行動面、そしてC-test結果(Mean=30.5, S.D.=8.7, Skewness=-0.3, Kurtosis=0.3)による「英語学習の達成」へと因果が及ぼされるモデルについて、構造方程式モデリングが行われた(図1)。長方形は観測変数、楕円は潜在変数、直線の片方向矢印は仮定された因果、弧かとなった。このため、評価材料とすることでノート・テーキング方略使用を促すのではなく、その機能を提示すること、実感させること、を意図した指導が望まれる。

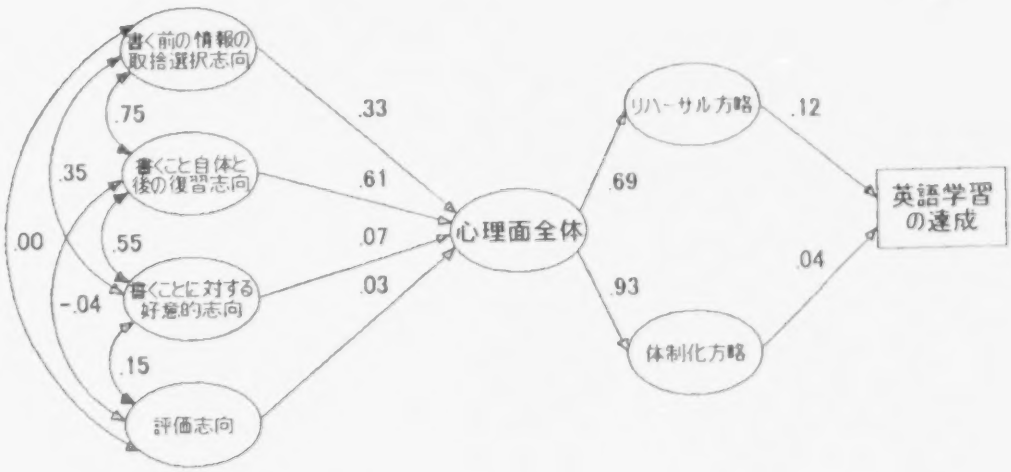

図1　構造方程式モデリング結果の簡略図(標準化解)

心理的側面の因子間相関は検証的因子分析の段階からほとんど変化はなく、「書くことがもたらす評価志向」が特に他の因子と無相関であると判断できることが明らかとなった。また、「英語学習の達成」への因果の方向性を持つものは、「書くこと自体と書いた後の復習志向」が.61、「書く前の情報の取捨選択」が.33であり、ある程度の影響が仮定される。一方、「書くことに対する好意的志向」は.07と、「書くことがもたらす評価志向」の-.04と並んで僅少な因果しか示していない。「心理面全体」からの因果は「リハーサル方略」に.69、「体制化方略」に.93と、特に後者に対して強い因果を示している。「英語学習の達成」への直接的な因果は「リハーサル方略」から.12、「体制化方略」から.04と、かなり低い係数が得られている。このことは、学習達成の指標としてC-testのみを用いたことから測定が充分な精度で行われず、測定誤差が大きくなってしまったためであると考えられる。そのため、モデルには含まれているが、学習達成への効果については言及を保留する。

これらの結果から、以下のことが解釈された。心理面に関しては、書くことに好意的であることは直接的に行動面や学習達成に影響を及ぼさないが、情報の取捨選択や書くこと自体、書いた後の復習などを志向することとある程度影響しあっている。その一方、評価を気にすることは、心理面とも行動面ともほとんど関連を持っていない。そして、情報を取捨選択することと、書くこと自体や書いた後の復習を志向することはともに行動面へ影響を与えるが、後者の方がその影響は強いことが特徴として挙げられる。また、行動面に関しては、リハーサル方略も体制化方略も心理面からの影響を大きく受けるが、後者の方が受ける影響は強いということが明らかとされた。

結論

本研究では3点の目的に沿って調査、分析が行われた。その過程において、日本の高校生英語学習者を対象としてノート・テーキング方略使用を測定する質問紙が改良され、その結果が多くの被調査者からのデータをもとに提示された。

分析結果から、先行研究によって示されたノート・テーキング方略の心理的側面が行動的側面に影響を与えている程度が推定された。また、行動的側面として挙げられた質問項目群が大きく、教師が指導することが多いリハーサル方略と、教師が指導することが少ないために自主的と思われる体制化方略に2分できることが明らかとなった。単なる反復に終わるのではなく、教師から体制化の方法を示す指導が望まれる。

心理的側面に関しては、評価を意識することはほとんど他の要因から独立であること、書くことに対する好意は直接的にではないが間接的に他の心理的側面との相関というかたちで影響しあっていることが明らかとなった。このため、評価材料とすることでノート・テーキング方略使用を促すのではなく、その機能を提示すること、実感させること、を意図した指導が望まれる。

また、本研究では精緻な標本抽出の手順を踏んでおらず、結果を一般化することには慎重にならなければならない。また、得られた観測変数の全てを使用したために、変数減少などによるモデルの洗練も行われていない。そして、英語学習の達成を測定するにあたって単一の基準で臨んだことにより、測定の妥当性の余地も存在する。学校教育現場での集合調査という限界は存在するが、これらの課題を克服するような更なる研究が期待される。

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Appendix

調査で使用されたC-test

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People are always wishing. But on_ce_(1) in Chi_na_(2) a ma_n_(3) got hi_s_(4) wish, whi_ch_(5) was t_o_(6) see th_e_(7) difference betw_een_(8) heaven an_d_(9) hell bef_ore_(10) he di_ed_(11).

When h_e_(12) visited he_ll_(13), he sa_w_(14) tables crow_ded_(15) with delic_ious_(16) food, bu_t_(17) everyone wa_s_(18) hungry an_d_(19) angry. Th_ey_(20) had fo_od_(21), but we_re_(22) forced t_o_(23) sit seve_ral_(24) feet fr_om_(25) the tab_le_(26) and us_e_(27) chops_ticks_(28) three fe_et_(29) long th_at_(30) made i_t_(31) impossible t_o_(32) get an_y_(33) food in_to_(34) their mou_ths_(35).

When th_e_(36) man sa_w_(37) heaven, h_e_(38) was ve_ry_(39) surprised fo_r_(40) it loo_ked_(41) the sa_me_(42). Big tab_les_(43) of delic_ious_(44) food. Peo_ple_(45) forced t_o_(46) sit seve_ral_(47) feet fr_om_(48) the tab_le_(49) and us_e_(50) three-foot lo_ng_(51) chopsticks th_at_(52) made i_t_(53) impossible t_o_(54) get an_y_(55) food in_to_(56) their mou_ths_(57). It wa_s_(58) exactly li_ke_(59) hell, bu_t_(60) in hea_ven_(61) the peo_ple_(62) were we_ll_(63) fed an_d_(64) happy.

Why?

In heaven they were feeding one another

Perspectives

Sexism in Japanese Radio Business English Program Textbooks

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In Japanese society, "sexism" is still pervasive and has crept into EFL (English as a Foreign Language) textbooks. The *Easy Business English* series of textbooks, utilized by a nation-wide radio program in Japan from October 2000 to March 2001, are examined for sexism. A brief analysis of the omission of females is followed by a discussion of occupational roles of males and females, and then a discussion of gendered identities. Finally, word choices are investigated. This paper concludes that sexism is still an issue to be dealt with and suggests that EFL teachers reexamine the textbooks used in their classrooms.

日本の社会では現在もなお、性差別（sexism）が存在し、それが英語のテキストにも反映されている。本研究では全国ネットのラジオ局による語学プログラム「やさしいビジネス英語」で2000年10月から2001年3月まで使用されたテキストを取り上げ、性差別の観点から分析した。女性の過少評価の分析から始め、男女の役割、男女のアイデンティティ、言語差別等を調査した。その結果、性差別が存在することを明らかにし、英語教師が教室で使用するテキストに関しても、性差別の有無を再調査するよう提案している。

Sexism is "discrimination on the grounds of sex, based on assumptions that women are both different from and inferior to men" (Talbot, 1998, p. 215). In Japanese society, "sexism" is still widespread; the fact that women continue to have more difficulty in finding jobs than men, as well as the fact that a woman's average salary is about 60% of a man's salary in a comparable job, suggests the existence of sexism (Kojima, 2000).

The sexism that exists in Japanese society has crept into our EFL textbooks as well. Even though gendered identities might be transformed in the process of second language socialization (Pavlenko, 2001), and Japanese women may learn English to escape from the identities forced on them by national ideologies, when textbooks incorporate the notion of sexism, studying English may actually reinforce or create beliefs in gender inequality through textbooks. As Renner (1997) stated, "the textbooks used within an EFL setting are not just tools by which the English language is taught. A large dose of cultural content is also present within them" (p. 3). Texts can be sexist "if they omit the actions and achievements of women, if they demean women by using patronizing language, or if they show women only in stereotyped less capable roles" (Graci, 1989, p. 478). The purpose of this paper is to investigate sexism in a mainstream English as a foreign language (EFL) textbooks published in Japan.

Much ink has been devoted to sexism and textbook analyses over the past few decades (e.g., Coles, 1977; Graci, 1989; Gross, 1996; Hellinger, 1980; Holt, 1990; Hommes, 1978; Mannheim, 1995; Peterson & Kroner, 1992; Porreca, 1984; Potter & Rosser, 1992; Sadker & Sadker, 1980; Schmitz, 1975; Siegal & Okamoto, 1996; Sims, 1997; Stern, 1976; Talansky, 1986; Tietze & Davis, 1981; Walford, 1981); therefore great strides have been made. However, no research has been done on EFL textbooks published in Japan, where sexism still appears, particularly in those used by business organizations. My question is: Does sexism still exist in EFL textbooks published in Japan? Taking the textbooks of a business English program aired on national radio as examples, I will attempt to answer this question.

Sexism and Textbook Analysis

Various kinds of textbooks, including EFL textbooks, come within the scope of this literature review. Although some textbook analysts have advocated the use of a feminist perspective (Alvermann & Commeyras, 1996; Holt, 1990), abundant investigations have shown textbooks to be sexist in various areas. Scholars have found four main areas in which they have detected manifestations of sexism, three of which are related to content and one to language itself.

One manifestation of sexism appearing in textbooks is the omission of females; females do not appear as often as males in texts (Coles, 1977; Hommes, 1978; Sadker & Sadker, 1980; Schmitz, 1975; Stern, 1976). Porreca (1984), for example, found that the average ratio of females to males in the 15 most widely used ESL textbooks she surveyed, includ-

ing apparent masculine generic constructions, was 1:2.06, and the mean proportion of females to males in illustrations was 1:1.97.

A second type of sexism emerges in occupational roles of males and females in the texts in terms of both type and range of jobs. According to a study by the Mathematics Education Research group (1980), in six primary textbooks and 25 of 31 secondary textbooks of mathematics published in New Zealand, some of the roles traditionally allocated for males were assigned to females; however, those for females were not assigned to males. Hellinger (1980), in a study of 131 passages from English language textbooks, revealed that women were rarely engaged in any demanding, interesting, or successful activities, while male roles represented a broad range of occupational positions. Sims (1997), surveying test banks accompanying 17 management education texts, discovered that female managers were referred to significantly more often by their first names than male managers.

A third manifestation of sexism concerns stereotypical gendered identities for men and women. Four studies provide examples of this type of sexism: Walford's (1981) review of texts of recently published physics textbooks, which indicated that physics was a more male-oriented subject than a female-oriented one; Potter and Rosser's (1992) scrutiny of five seventh-grade life science textbooks that implied that the achievements of women scientists are relatively fewer or of lesser importance than those of men scientists; Peterson and Kroner's (1992) inspection of 27 current textbooks in introductory psychology and 12 for human development courses, which found that females were frequently portrayed in negative and gender-biased ways; and Siegal and Okamoto's (1996) study of five Japanese textbooks, which represented highly stereotypical social norms based on hegemonic ideologies of class, gender, and language.

A fourth category of sexism in textbooks is evident in linguistic analyses, such as the examination of lexical items. Porreca (1984), for example, found that masculine generic constructions were still used extensively in the 15 most widely used ESL textbooks, and attempts to avoid the masculine generic were often incomplete and confusing, even in passages or sentences where the masculine generic could be easily avoided.

Although many publishers, editors, teachers, and students worldwide object to sexist teaching and learning materials (Mannheim, 1995; Sunderland, 1995), this literature review reveals that many textbooks have been found to include some facets of sexism: omission of females, limited occupational roles for females, negative stereotypical identities for females, and preferential linguistic use of masculine generic con-

structions rather than gender-neutral ones. Moreover, up to the present time there has been no prominent research about possible sexism in EFL textbooks published in Japan. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to see if recent advances in women's rights in Japan have been reflected in EFL textbooks published in this country, especially those used in the business world.

Research Design

The *Easy Business English* series of textbooks, utilized by a nationwide radio program in Japan from October 2000 through March 2001 are examined for sexism. This program was selected because it has been broadcast widely for 14 years and therefore has had and continues to have a great influence on learners using this program and its texts.

Materials and Procedures

Easy Business English is published in Japan each month and written by eight Japanese authors and a number of native English speakers. Each week, eight regular characters discuss one topic. Every year, the contents in the textbooks from April to September are again utilized from October to March. In this study, all model dialogues that appeared in the textbooks are analyzed; the radio listeners encounter "Vignette" (named as "Today's Vignette" and "Short Dialogue" in the textbooks) from Monday to Friday, where the same eight characters converse in turn. In "Listening Challenge" on Friday, different characters, whose faces can be seen in pictures, appear each time. It is important to note that all of the dialogues are written in the book exactly as they are used in the radio program.

Considering types of manifestations of sexism explained above, I begin this study by briefly examining the omission of females. In this section, the numbers of female and male characters and their turn-takings in "Vignette" are counted; then, since these characters talk about some other individuals, the numbers of male and female individuals talked about by them are also calculated; and then in "Listening Challenge," the numbers of male and female characters who appeared in the pictures are calculated. (Since by just reading the transcripts it is sometimes difficult to decide whether a man or woman is talking, only the male or female characters who appeared in the pictures are counted.) This analysis is followed by a discussion of occupational roles of males and females. In this section, the roles of eight regular charac-

ters are first explained; after that, the roles of the female and male individuals talked about by these eight characters are enumerated and discussed; and then the roles of female and male characters that appeared in "Listening Challenge" are listed and examined. Next, all gender-related identities found in the textbooks are discussed. Finally, word choices are investigated.

Results and Discussion

Omission of Females

In "Vignette" sections, four male and four female characters regularly appear. Two male characters and one female character also appear as guests; therefore the numbers of characters appearing in the texts from October to February are almost equal (6 males vs. 5 females). When tallying up the number of turns taken among the characters, it emerges that there were 348 male turn-takings versus 337 female turn-takings, which at first glance appears quite equitable. However, when counting the individuals that were mentioned in the dialogues produced by these characters, 22 male individuals and 15 female counterparts are found. In the "Listening Challenge" section, counting the numbers of male and female characters appearing in the pictures revealed that there are 39 male roles compared with 7 female roles, which suggests male dominance in the business organization.

Occupational Roles of Males and Females

Eight regular characters in "Vignette" are first considered. The main character is a Japanese businessman, Hiromi Araki. There are two male managers: Lou Cruise, aged 47, and Ben Leonard, aged 50. Lee Seymour, Gabby Mann, and Camille Renoir are female businesswomen. Sandy Liu is a male worker coming from the Hong Kong office. Mickey Ramirez, 27, is a female worker whose parents emigrated from Puerto Rico. Seymour, Mann, Renoir, and Liu are in their thirties. That is to say, the two managers and the main character are males and the four subordinates are female. This implies that males are more valuable than females.

These eight characters talk about other men and women whose occupational roles vary:

Table 1: Occupational Roles of Males and Females Appearing in the Dialogues of "Vignette"

Male	Female
Manager, new Nelson ABC Foods office	Boss
Section manager	Ramirez's cousin who has just found a job
Gold Coast's HR manager	
Doctor	
Young stock-brokerage hotshot	
Founder of ecotourism, called its godfather	
President	
Executive	
Millionaire	
Flight attendant	
New CEO	
Manager	
High school teacher	

Except for the flight attendant and the high school teacher, all the male roles represent powerful, high status, highly esteemed occupations. Furthermore, although women are mentioned 15 times in the dialogues, only two are mentioned in conjunction with an occupation. Women are often not described in terms of their occupations but rather in terms of their personal relationships, such as mother, cousin, wife, grandmother, and aunt. That esteemed occupational roles are occupied mostly by males and that women are often described in terms of their personal relationships fall under the second category of detecting sexism and gives support to the idea that sexism is present.

In some cases, women could possibly fill the occupational roles in the texts. Although "a doctor" or "doctors," for example, appear nine times in the texts, many of these instances are unclear about whether the person is male or female. Doctors are once referred to as "they" (emphasis added in bold in all examples):

> Renoir: Doctors are afraid of being sued if they give more than minimal doses of drugs for pain relief. If **they** give as much as a patient really needs, death may come faster and then the doctor may be accused of malpractice. (Jan., p. 36)

Cases such as this, in which the referents were inexplicit with regard to gender, were not included in this study.

On the other hand, on the two occasions when a doctor was referred to in the singular form, the doctor was referred to as male. There were no instances of explicitly female doctors. Consider the following excerpts.

> Mann: I'll let our doctor do the diagnosis. So far, Alissa says she hasn't got a problem, so why go to the doctor? But it's obvious that she needs professional help. I hope **he** convinces her there's no need to go to extremes. (Oct., p. 58)
>
> Mann: Thank heavens my mother saw the light in time. Her doctor also advised her to think about the right kind of nutrition beginning right now. **He** pointed out that food figures in cancer too. (Dec., p. 88)

These examples show how doctors are referred to as male.

As far as "Listening Challenge" is concerned, here is a list of the men's and women's occupational roles:

Table 2: Occupational Roles of Males and Females Appearing in "Listening Challenge"

Male	Female
Salesman	Interviewer
Presenter	Receptionist
Candidate for a business position	Secretary
Buyer	Airline employee
Manufacturer	Businesswoman
Senior businessman	Sales department agent
Common clerk	Person in charge of the exhibition
Person in charge of an exhibition	
Manager in charge of advertising	
President	

Table 2 indicates that the two highest positions, the manager in charge of advertising and the president, are jobs for males, whereas among the lowest, receptionist and secretary are still solely "female" jobs.

Gendered Identities

The dialogues in the textbooks produce or reproduce five main gendered sexist identities, visible in the content. The first gendered sexist

identity is related to the participants' family organizations. All of the following sentences are observed from each participant's dialogue regarding their own family or partner.

Leonard (male): Overall, I've been impressed by my **boy**'s teachers. (Oct., p. 98)
My **son** spent a lot of time rapping with his favorites. (Oct., p. 98)
My **wife** gets an annual checkup. (Dec., p. 84)

Liu (male): My **wife** and I are converts too. (Nov., p. 32)
My **son** told me that whole floors of his dormitory have monitors. (Dec., p. 24)

Araki (male): **Atsuko** (his wife) is making money out of online ads. (Dec., p. 16)
... **Atsuko** gets a percentage of the purchase price. (Dec., p. 16)
Atsuko's gotten so many people involved... (Dec., p.20)
We visited Panama with the **kids** last year ... (Dec., p. 32)
The **kids** wanted to pick flowers to press for picture albums. (Dec., p. 44)
My **mother** said once she doesn't mind dying ... (Jan., p. 32)

Cruise (male): My **boys** are into that too. (Oct., p. 16)
At first my **boys** were sending ads around as a duo. (Oct., p. 16)
Mrs. Cruise would do that too. (Feb., p. 108)
Our **boys** are a different story. (Feb., p. 108)

Mann (female): It's my daughter. **Alissa** ...(Oct., p. 58)
My parents and **Alissa** agreed ... (Dec., p. 32)
Alissa was very nervous ... (Dec., p. 40)
He asked me out. I said O.K. It's not serious yet, but it feels so good to have a nice guy courting me. (Feb., p. 104)
Alissa gets e-mail valentine cards ... (Feb., p. 104)

Seymour (female): **Barry** (her husband) and I spent part of our honeymoon in Panama. (Dec., p. 32)
... in spite of some problems with **Barry**'s grandmother. (Nov., p. 104)

Barry found a hotel ...(Nov., p. 104)
Barry took care of all that ... (Nov., p. 104)
Barry had to canvass hotels (Nov., p. 108)
Barry's mother got in touch with ...(Nov., p. 108)
I'll make a note of that and let **Barry** know. (Nov., p. 108)
I'll shoot a memo to **Barry**... (Nov., p. 112)
Barry and I might want to follow in your footsteps. (Dec., p. 36)
Barry won't book an ecotour. (Dec., p. 44)
Barry's father bought it as part of an investment. (Jan., p. 36)
Even **Barry** was flabbergasted, ... (Feb., p. 80)
Barry's father has a six-figure income, ... (Feb., p. 92)
Barry's family assets increase... (Feb., p. 92)

Ramirez (female): **Rodrigo** (her husband) and I value our time at home together. (Dec., p. 60)
Rodrigo calls it feeling the Christmas spirit every week of the year. (Nov., p. 68)

Renoir (female): **Emile** (her boyfriend) and I treat each other to ... (Feb., p. 108)

As seen in these statements, Araki, Cruise, Leonard, and Liu are married and have children (three with sons and one with gender-inexplicit "kids"). Seymour and Ramirez are married, but neither appears to have any children. Mann has a daughter but is either single or divorced, since she has a boyfriend (no mention of husband or father of the child). Renoir has a boyfriend. The basic pattern is that women in the business organization are often single or, if married, they have no children.

In addition, from the above sentences, we can note a curious feature: When Leonard and Liu refer to their wives, they utilize the word "wife," or on one occasion, Cruise says "Mrs. Cruise," all of which are translated as "*tsuma*" (wife) in Japanese; these words imply that women are in subordinate roles to men; whereas when the women mention their husbands, they always state their husbands' names and never refer to them as "my husband." Interestingly, when Araki refers to his wife, conversely, he utilizes her name. This may be related to the fact that Atsuko has her own job, which may represent her independence. In contrast, the other three men do not mention their wives' jobs in the texts; therefore it is not clear whether they have their own jobs or not.

The second gendered sexist identity concerns appearance as a

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women's issue. Consider the following extracts:

> Renoir: I thought you said she finished her computer-training course with flying colors.
>
> Ramirez: She did. I wasn't worried about her skills. I was concerned about her appearance. She didn't have the proper clothing to look good for a job interview. (Nov., p. 8)

Ramirez's comment conveys the importance of a female interviewee's appearance rather than her skills. This notion creates specific gendered identity, and may induce the radio listeners to accept this identity.

Furthermore, women are stereotypically represented as being concerned with appearance irrespective of their age, situation, or business position. A girl is anxious about her appearance.

> Mann: ...It's my daughter. Alissa is obsessed with her weight and shape. She eats little and doesn't keep it down. Her weight loss is obvious, but she still feels fat even though she's underweight. (Oct., p. 58)

Mentioning her daughter, Mann may have created an image of girls who care too much about their appearance. The text introduces the slogan "Don't Weigh Your Self-Esteem . . . It's What's Inside That Counts" (Oct., p. 77). This text can help to produce the image of women who consider their appearance more important than their talents, skills, or education. However, anorexia is in fact a problem that real women face and is taken very seriously by most feminists. This might therefore be seen as positive recognition of a women's issue.

The third gendered sexist identity concerns prioritizing family choices over business. Here is Wenz's case:

> Wenz (female): I left M & B to get married and came back this week after my divorce.
>
> Araki: I'm sorry things didn't work out for you. (Jan, p. 8)

This example reveals that for a woman, getting married often means giving up her career and choosing homemaking. Wenz's statement contributes to a negative image of women. Also, Araki's sympathetic response implies that the return to work might not be perceived as a positive outcome.

Moreover, Leonard talked about millionaires' wives:

Leonard: I thought it was interesting that even these days half the wives don't work outside the home. If they do, they're usually teachers. (Feb., p. 80)

The above excerpt shows that a large number of millionaires' wives work outside the home as teachers; however, it also implies that if women are married to money and are not teachers, they do not work outside the home.

The fourth gendered sexist identity presents women as less valued than males (or wives as less than husbands).

Seymour: Divorce alone is not a complete cure, though. More than half of battered women feel they must have done something deeply wrong to deserve such violence. They blame themselves and often need counseling. (Jan., p. 16)

Seymour's quote somehow describes divorce as something that occurs to women, especially women who are battered. Women need counseling but men are not presented as needing counseling.

That wives' are less valued than husbands also emerges in the following extracts from the dialogues:

Leonard: Divorcing his wife to wed his secretary caused bad vibes in the company's local community. That invited a lot of boos and catcalls.

Seymour: Other CEOs have done that and survived. (Jan., p. 80)

This suggests that husbands can have affairs; on the other hand, no wives' affairs are presented in the textbooks. The wives are portrayed as being divorced and being on the outside; if they had endured in silence then maybe they would still be married.

The fifth gendered sexist identity concerns the fact that disabled, sick, and elderly people, who are regarded as weaker than ordinary people, are almost always portrayed as women. This trend is illustrated in the following dialogue samples:

Seymour: We had a fine time, in spite of some problems with Barry's grandmother. She has Parkinson's disease and has to travel in a wheelchair. (Nov., p. 104)

Renoir: Once a wheelchair traveler told me she didn't want to be treated with kid gloves. (Nov., p. 112)

Mann: ...my mother hadn't seen a doctor for years. Her skin-care consultant, who makes a house call once a month, has been urging her for a long time to have a mammogram. Well, finally my mother did just that. She tested positive. She has breast cancer. (Dec., p. 80)

Leonard: Well, you all know my Aunt Etta. She collapsed at dinner last night and had to be hospitalized. We knew she had colon cancer... (Jan., p. 32)

Since no man appears sick or disabled in the texts, the effect is the creation of gendered images of weak, ill, or disabled elderly women.

Word Choice

Manifestations of sexism are also found in the word choices. Consider the following sexist use of language:

One **man**'s meat is another **man**'s poison.
Americans dip into their pockets and do something about it, whether we're talking victims of natural disasters or **man-made** atrocities.
Why are **Mr. and Mrs.** Average American still limping along from one paycheck to the next?

On the other hand, the texts also at times carefully use words in a gender-neutral fashion:

In most cases, there are warning signs that a coworker is going to blow **his or her** top.
The campaign's aimed mainly at **homemakers**...
The passenger sees this humongous furry spider right next to **his or her** face.
If somebody goes too far, take **him or her** aside and talk it over quietly.

Though the word "homemakers" is translated into "*shufu* (housewife)" in Japanese transcripts, the word choice of "homemakers" shows an attempt to eradicate sexism.

Overall, both sexist and nonsexist language in the texts can be seen. The usage of gender-neutral pronouns in some sections and male pronouns in other sections may be due to a schizophrenic pull among the eight different authors.

Conclusion

Learning English is a situation where learners are socialized into the target culture, and many Japanese women may learn English hoping to get rid of their gendered identities forced on them by national ideologies. A radio language program, an excellent device for learning a language, has the power to shape the listener's ideas. This paper cites examples of various aspects of sexism in the *Easy Business English* textbooks, demonstrating that sexism is still an issue to be dealt with.

More research is necessary to see if these examples of sexism are part of a broader trend in Japanese EFL textbooks. Furthermore, not only should textbook writers and publishers make great efforts to eliminate sexism when creating textbooks, but also we as EFL teachers should reexamine textbooks used in classrooms as well as those intended for private study before actually utilizing them as teaching materials in order to evaluate how gendered identities are treated in their contents, both on the surface and in substance.

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Reviews

Curriculum Development in Language Teaching. Jack C. Richards. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001. xiv + 321 pp.

Reviewed by
Terry Vanderveen
Kyoto Sangyo University

Most readers of the *JALT Journal* are familiar with Jack Richards through one or more of his many publications, which range from methodology to textbooks for English learners. His co-authored *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (2001) is in its second edition, and his *New Interchange* (1998) series is one of the biggest selling language textbook series in Japan.

Curriculum Development in Language Teaching is part of the Cambridge Language Education series edited by Richards. In this book, Richards has set out to provide in-service teachers with a resource and teachers in training with a review of language program planning, implementation, and evaluation approaches. Overall, he has achieved this goal and has accomplished the difficult task of writing a text that is informative and balanced in terms of scope and utility.

Richards gives a rather narrow definition of the term "syllabus," restricting it to the content of a course while the term "curriculum" is seen as encompassing syllabus and other elements such as needs analysis, teaching, and evaluation. His discussion of curriculum development deals predominantly with planning and implementing a language course rather than with the broader issues of planning and developing a set of related courses within a program.

The book is organized into nine chapters covering language teaching history, methods, needs analysis, situation analysis, goals and outcomes, course design, the teaching and learning process, materials design, and evaluation. Each chapter ends with discussion questions and activities, an appendix, and chapter references. The chapters follow a chronological sequence that matches the development of a typical curriculum, which progresses from an initial needs analysis ultimately to program evalua-

tion. Aspects that receive the most attention are needs analysis, learning outcomes, and syllabus frameworks. There are also short descriptions of the more common philosophies of teaching, learning, and language. The useful index of authors and subjects at the end of the book and the clarity and style of the layout, especially the table of contents and indices, make finding information quick and easy.

At more than eighty pages, the appendices form the largest portion of the book. Vocabulary, function and grammar lists, needs analyses, proficiency descriptors, evaluation forms, and samples from Richards' own texts are included. Some of the appendices could have been omitted, particularly the sample of a word frequency list and grammar list of personal and possessive pronouns. The appendix on questionnaire design offers some useful tips but lacks any explanation of data analysis or interpretation, limiting its usefulness for those wanting to administer their own surveys. Two lengthy questionnaires (co-written by Richards) are given as samples in appendices, but there is little discussion of their design or effectiveness. The majority of the appendices, however, complement the text well. For example, the discussion of the pros and cons of skills-based, task-based, process, and product syllabi, among others, highlights the issues that Richards considers important in syllabus design. The different types of syllabi in the appendices in Chapter 8 should provoke thought and discussion among teachers in training or readers new to curriculum design. The proficiency descriptors and teacher evaluation forms that Richards has taken from a variety of sources may be useful for those interested in evaluation issues.

Most of the book is easy to understand and only rarely becomes overly simplistic, as in the description on p. 161 of a task-based syllabus: "Tasks are activities that drive the second language acquisition process." While axiomatic definitions such as this are present, they are infrequent and do little to detract from Richards' efforts "to acquaint language teachers and teachers-in-training with fundamental issues" (p. xi). *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching* presents lists, forms, and brief descriptions that provides an understandable, albeit limited, background to the issues involved in course design, as well as offering some related resources.

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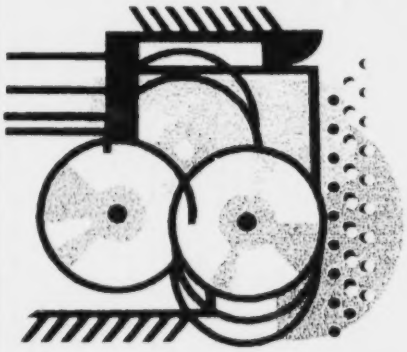

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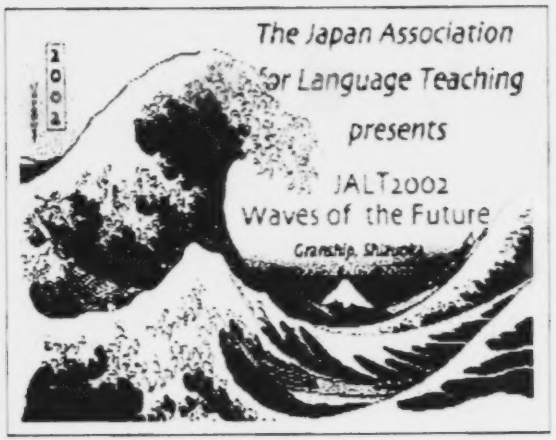

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A Nonprofit Organization

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In this Issue

Articles

The main section of this issue contains five articles. **Tsuyuki Miura** and **David Beglar** analyze the vocabulary section of the Eiken and offer their recommendations for change. **Peter M. Duppenthaler** takes a look at the effects of three types of written feedback on student motivation. **Yukinari Shimoyama**, **Takamichi Isoda**, and **Koyo Yamamori** investigate learner beliefs in language learning in the CALL environment. **Yuko Fujita** focuses on the foreign language learning style of Japanese university students and Kolb's experiential learning theory. **Aya Matsuda** explores how the users and uses of English in beginning Japanese EFL textbooks are represented.

Perspectives

Learner errors, some of which are developmental and others of which are the outcome of L1 transfer, can be effectively corrected. **Alice Y. W. Chan**, **Becky S. C. Kwan** and **David C. S. Li** offer an algorithmic approach to error correction. According to their experiences with this technique, learners can and do overcome even pervasive errors.

Reviews

A teacher resource book on the teaching of vocabulary is reviewed by **Keiko Sakui** and a book on the teaching and researching of autonomy in language learning is reviewed by **Mika Maruyama** and **Joseph Falout**. **Thomas C. Anderson** examines an updated classic on approaches and methods; a broad map of historical linguistics is outlined by **Robert Kirkpatrick**.

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From the Editors

After serving as Associate Editor and then as Editor of JALT Journal for nearly five years, Nicholas O. Jungheim has decided to pass the baton to Associate Editor Donna Tatsuki. The editors would like to thank members of the JALT Journal Editorial Advisory Board, additional reviewers, proofreaders and all other JALT volunteers who have helped make this editorial transition smooth. We appreciate the generous contribution of their time to help ensure the continued high quality of our publication.

Conference News

AILA 2002 Congress Singapore, Applied Linguistics in the 21st Century: Opportunities for Innovation and Creativity. The 13th World Congress of Applied Linguistics will be held 16 - 21 December 2002 in Singapore at the Singapore International Convention and Exhibition Center. Presenters will include: Michael A.K. Halliday (University of Sydney, Australia), Shirley Brice Heath (Stanford University, USA), Claire Kramsch (University of California-Berkeley, USA), and Yoji Tanabe (Waseda University, Japan).
For more information, please visit: < http://www.aila2002.org/>.

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Articles

The *Eiken* Vocabulary Section[1]: An Analysis and Recommendations for Change

Tsuyuki Miura
Temple University Japan
David Beglar
Temple University Japan

Although the Eiken is one of the most widely taken English proficiency tests in Japan, little empirical research has been conducted on the test. In this study, the vocabulary sections of all levels of the Eiken administered from 1998 to 2000 were analyzed. There were five principal findings: (a) successive levels of the Eiken vocabulary section do not increase in difficulty in a smoothly graduated fashion, (b) some test forms appear more difficult than others, (c) item options from widely differing frequency levels are sometimes used on the same item, (d) the assumed vocabulary sizes of targeted examinees frequently bear little relation to the difficulty of the items included in the vocabulary section, and (e) the sentence stems in the vocabulary section and the reading passages impose a similar lexical load. A number of suggestions for addressing the shortcomings of the vocabulary section are proposed.

実用英語検定試験(英検)は、日本で最も広く受験されている英語熟達度判定テストの一つであるにもかかわらず、実証的調査はほとんどなされていないのが実情である。本稿では１９９８年から２０００年の間に実施された英検全級の語彙問題分析を行い、結果として主に以下五点を挙げる。(a)各級間の難易度変化は均等ではない、(b)テストにより難易度に差がある、(c)一つの項目の選択肢に、頻度が大きく異なる語彙の使用が見られる場合がある、(d)実施者が想定する各級受験対象者の語彙力と、語彙問題における項目難易度は関連が薄い、(e)語彙問題の項目基幹部分と、長文読解問題の引用文は、語彙レベルにおいて近似している。さらに本稿では、語彙問題における問題点に対し、数多くの提案を掲げている。

One of the most important English proficiency tests in Japan is the *Jitsuyo Eigo Ginou Kentei Shiken* (*Eiken*), which is developed and administered by the *Nihon Eigo Kentei Kyokai* (*Eikyo*). Nearly three million people took a version of the *Eiken* in 2001, and since the test's introduction in 1963, more than 61 million people have sat the exam. The *Eiken*, which is currently made up of seven different level-specific tests beginning with the fifth level and increasing in difficulty through pre-second, second, and pre-first to the first level, was characterized by MacGregor (1997) as being "highly respected in social, educational, and employment circles..." (p. 24) in Japan. This statement is supported by the fact that *Eiken* certification is accepted in lieu of sitting an entrance examination by some Japanese high schools, vocational schools, junior colleges, and universities, and passing particular levels of the test carries university credit in some institutions. In addition, more than one-third of the prefectures in Japan are currently using the *Eiken* as one way to determine the language proficiency of prospective English teachers (see www.eiken.or.jp for further details). Passing higher levels of the *Eiken* also enhances a person's chances to be hired and/or promoted in some companies.

Notwithstanding the *Eiken's* position of importance in Japan, there is a lack of published research that illuminates fundamental testing concerns such as reliability, validity, and test washback. Our investigation of Japanese and English-language educational and language testing journals uncovered surprisingly few investigations of the *Eiken*, and none directly related to the topic of this study. In an early study, Murakami (1972) questioned the Eiken's reliability and the quality of some items. A quarter of a century later, an exploratory examination of a pre-second level form of the *Eiken* was reported by MacGregor (1997), who arrived at five main conclusions. First, the test content appeared to match the intended group of test takers (second and third year high school students), a feature that MacGregor characterized as the test's greatest strength. However, MacGregor's other comments were critical, and they were derived from a cluster of reasons. Foremost among them was the charge that there is reason for concern about the test's reliability and validity. An additional related issue materialized as a result of an item analysis that she conducted. Approximately half of the items on the test were found to have unacceptable item discrimination values (a measure of how well an item differentiates high and low scoring examinees), a factor that would directly contribute to the fairly low reliability coefficient she found for the test form she investigated. Fourth, the context provided for some

items was unclear and even occasionally illogical, another characteristic that can adversely affect test reliability and validity. Finally, MacGregor argued that *Eikyo* should provide published reports of studies on item construction, reliability, and validity, a common practice of large testing companies such as Educational Testing Service in the United States.

Despite the criticisms of MacGregor's study raised by Henry (1998), her work represents an important initial attempt to illuminate the major strengths and weaknesses of the *Eiken*. In contrast to MacGregor, who chose to examine overall test functioning of one level of the test, we will begin a more focused line of research by investigating the *Eiken* vocabulary section. Our primary purpose is to undertake a preliminary analysis of the vocabulary section of all levels of the *Eiken* in order to determine the types of words being tested and to make recommendations for improving that section.

We have chosen to focus on the vocabulary section for three reasons. First, unlike some sections of the *Eiken*, a vocabulary section is included on each level of the test. Thus, unlike some other areas, it is one tested at all proficiency levels. Second, a number of studies conducted in the past decade have highlighted the importance of lexical knowledge for aural language processing (Miller & Eimas, 1995; VanPatten, 1996), speech production (Altman, 1997; de Bot, 1992; Levelt, 1993), reading (de Bot, Paribakht, & Wesche, 1997; Durgunoglu, 1997), and writing (Engber, 1995; Laufer & Nation, 1995). Third, we believe that research on the vocabulary section in particular is needed. The first author's experience and her discussions with other Japanese who have taken several levels of the *Eiken* suggest that the difficulty of the vocabulary section does not increase in smoothly graduated steps. Instead, the informal consensus is that the vocabulary sections of the pre-first and first level tests present unusually severe challenges in comparison with both the vocabulary sections of other levels of the test and with other test sections. Finally, the perception that some editions of the test (same level but appearing at different times) are easier than others, contributes to the feeling that the tests are not entirely fair.

The Importance of High Frequency and Academic Vocabulary

The notion that particular groups of words are of special importance has been largely inspired by corpus-based research undertaken in the past by researchers such as West (1953) and continued in the present in corpora such as Collins' COBUILD Bank of English Corpus (http://titania.cobuild.collins.co.uk/). Such corpora have consistently shown

that a small number of words account for a high percentage of the words met receptively and used productively. For instance, the 2,000 high frequency word families as represented by the headwords in West's (1953) *General Service List* (*GSL*) provide coverage of up to 75% of fiction texts (Hirsh, 1993), 90% of non-fiction texts (Hwang, 1989), and 80% of academic texts (Nation, 2001).

In addition, the 570 general academic word families included in the *Academic Word List* account for an average of about 10% of the running words in academic texts (Coxhead, 2000). Together, these approximately 2,600 word families (i.e., 2,000 high frequency and 570 academic word families) are crucial for academic success in English-language settings as shown by the fact that they accounted for 86% of the vocabulary in Coxhead's 3.5 million word academic corpus, and they constitute the majority of the 3,000 word families that are needed for learners to reach what Laufer (1992) has referred to as "the turning point of vocabulary size for reading comprehension" (p. 130).

In this study, the vocabulary appearing in the *Eiken* vocabulary section are compared with word lists of high frequency and academic vocabulary, the expected proficiencies of the targeted examinees, and the vocabulary on the reading comprehension section of the test. This analysis is an attempt to shed light on precisely what vocabulary is being tested on all levels of the *Eiken*, and the results should be instructive to the test's designers, teachers preparing students to take the *Eiken*, and the examinees themselves.

In addition to the general purpose stated above, we posed three specific research questions:

> *Research question 1:* What is the lexical composition of the multiple-choice vocabulary options (i.e., the correct answer and three distractors) on each level of the *Eiken* in terms of high frequency, academic, and low frequency vocabulary? How consistent is the lexical composition from one administration to the next?

In order to answer these questions, we examined all of the correct answers and distractors of all *Eiken* vocabulary tests administered from 1998 to 2000. These original tests are available in a series of seven books titled *Eiken Zenmondaishu* (e.g., *Eiken*, 2001a, b & c).

> *Research question 2:* To what degree are the results of the first research question in accord with the targeted profi-

> ciencies of the examinees and the vocabulary size for each level that is suggested by *Eikyo*? How appropriate are the targeted proficiencies identified by *Eikyo*?

The purpose of these questions was to investigate whether the vocabulary items in each level of the *Eiken* are consistent with the targeted vocabulary sizes specified by *Eikyo* (2001) and *Monbu-kagaku-sho* (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology), as specified in *Gakushu Shidou Youryou* [(Foreign language in secondary school:) The Course of Study] (*Monbu-kagaku-sho*, 2001).

> *Research question 3:* How does the vocabulary of the item sentences (i.e., the stems and correct answer) in the vocabulary section compare with the vocabulary of the reading comprehension passages for each level?

The objective here was to compare the lexical load of the vocabulary section with that of the reading section. For this analysis, all levels of the *Eiken* administered in June 2000 were examined.

Method

The Range Program

All analyses were conducted with Range (Nation & Heatley, 1996), a PC program that is freely available at the University of Victoria at Wellington's web site (http://www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/). This software compares the words in a text or several texts with the words in three base lists and can be used to find the coverage of a text using preset word lists.

As noted above, Range detects and classifies three categories of words. The first is made up of the 1,000 most frequent words in English (3,126 types or 999 word families) and the second is comprised of the second 1,000 most frequent words (2,721 types or 986 families). The source of these words is *A General Service List of English Words* (West, 1953). Together these 1,985 word families constitute what is commonly referred to as the high frequency vocabulary of English.

The third category is made up of words not found among the high frequency words described above, but which frequently occur in upper secondary school and university textbooks across a wide range of academic subjects (2,540 types or 570 families). The source of these words is the *Academic Word List* (AWL) (Coxhead, 2000).

Range employs three types of units to count words. *Tokens* are tallied

by simply counting every word form in a spoken or written text. If the same word form occurs more than once, each occurrence is counted. *Types* are tallied by counting every unique word form only once. Additional occurrences are not counted. Let us look at one concrete example to help illustrate the idea. In the sentence, *Scientists know that the volume of the moon is the same as the volume of the Pacific Ocean*, there are 18 tokens (i.e., 18 words in the sentence) but only twelve types (i.e., twelve unique word forms). The final type of unit, *word families*, consists of a headword, its inflected forms, and its closely related derived forms. For example, ***know*** (headword), ***knows*** (inflected form), and ***unknown*** (closely related derived form) are all part of the same word family (Bauer & Nation, 1993). Although all three counts serve useful but distinct purposes, in this study we emphasized *types* because we were primarily interested in the occurrence of unique word forms. Finally, in addition to the three categories of words described above, Range indicates which words in a text are not covered by any of the above lists. Thus, a fourth category of low frequency vocabulary is automatically created by the program.

The Eiken Vocabulary Test Section

As noted above, all levels of the ***Eiken*** include vocabulary items in the first section of the test. The same multiple-choice, minimal context format is used for all levels, but the number of items on each level varies (see Table 1).

Table 1: Items Included in the Analyses

Test level	# of items per test	# of items inspected	# of items deleted/test	Total # of items deleted	Total # of items analyzed
First	30	180	6-7	38	142
Pre-first	30	180	6-7	38	142
Second	25	150	15	90	60
Pre-second	25	150	13-15	86	64
Third	20	120	8-11	56	64
Fourth	20	120	7-11	61	59
Fifth	15	90	5-9	46	44

The following is one item from the first level test administered in June 2000:

> After her pleasant first flight, the woman realized that her fear of flying had been ( ).
>
> 1. undaunted
> 2. unfounded
> 3. unabashed
> 4. unscathed
>
> (***Eiken***, 2001a, p. 14)

Each test that we examined also included a number of items testing knowledge of English idioms and grammar. For instance, the following item from the pre-first level tests idiomatic knowledge:

> The Internet stock's value grew ( ) soon after it was offered to the public. It rose 20% in one month.
>
> 1. out and about
> 2. by leaps and bounds
> 3. above and beyond
> 4. in bits and pieces
>
> (***Eiken***, 2001b, p. 19)

A typical fourth level grammar item is:

> George ( ) his friend in the park yesterday.
>
> 1. sees
> 2. will see
> 3. saw
> 4. seen
>
> (***Eiken***, 2001c, p. 28)

Because it is not possible to analyze multi-word units such as phrasal verbs and idioms with Range, these items, as well as the items testing

grammatical knowledge, were eliminated from the data set by both researchers working in consultation. Table 1 summarizes the number of items deleted from the analysis and the number of items remaining after the deletions. For instance, at the first level, 180 items were inspected (6 test forms x 30 items/per form), and depending on the specific form, six or seven items were deleted. This resulted in 38 total deletions. The remaining 142 items were used in the analyses.

The remaining multiple-choice options in all six administrations of the *Eiken* from 1998 to 2000 were then entered into Microsoft Word 2000 (2000). The files were then saved in text format so that they could be read by Range. Data files for each level consisted of the four multiple-choice options for each question, including the correct answers (e.g., ***unfounded*** in the first example test item above) and the three distractors (e.g., ***undaunted***, ***unabashed*** and ***unscathed***) for each item. The data from the six test forms were entered into separate test files so that we could investigate differences between the test forms.

The second set of data that were collected was for the item sentences (stems) in the vocabulary section along with the correct options (incorrect options excluded). Items that were excluded in the previous analysis were also excluded here.

The third data set was made up of the reading passages from the first to the fourth levels of the *Eiken* administered in June 2000[2]. The passages were entered into Microsoft Word 2000, converted to text format and then submitted to Range.

Results

The Multiple-Choice Vocabulary Options

The initial analysis concerned the multiple-choice options in the vocabulary section. Columns 4 to 7 in Table 2 summarize the results of the Range analysis. It can be seen, for example, that of all the types appearing in the fifth level test forms under examination, 95, or 81.2%, appear on Range's list of the 1,000 most frequent words. In general, the amount of higher frequency vocabulary decreases and the amount of lower frequency vocabulary increases as the tests move from the easiest (fifth) level to the most difficult (first) level, at which point over 90% of the vocabulary options are low frequency words.

Table 2: Targeted Examinees, Assumed Vocabulary Sizes, and Coverage of the Multiple-choice Options in the Vocabulary Section

Test Level	Targeted Examinees	Targeted Size	First 1,000 Types (%)	Second 1,000 Types (%)	AWL Types (%)	Low Frequency Types (%)
First	Four-year college grads	10,000 -15,000	8 (1.4)	11 (1.9)	23 (4.1)	523 (92.6)
Pre-first	Two-year college grads	7,500	32 (5.7)	55 (9.7)	133 (23.4)	346 (61.1)
Second	HS seniors	5,100	77 (33.5)	64 (27.8)	58 (25.2)	31 (13.5)
Pre-second	HS first & second year	3,600	143 (61.1)	57 (24.3)	17 (7.3)	17 (7.3)
Third	JHS third year	2,100	167 (77.7)	39 (18.1)	3 (1.4)	6 (2.8)
Fourth	JHS second year	1,300	161 (81.3)	34 (17.2)	2 (1.0)	1 (0.5)
Fifth	JHS first year	600	95 (81.2)	20 (17.1)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.7)

Note. HS = High school; JHS = Junior high school.

Variation among the lexical profiles of different administrations of the same test level was also investigated. The results for the first, pre-first, and second level test forms are displayed in Table 3. The second column shows the six administrations of the highest three levels of the *Eiken* included in this study, and columns 3 through 6 show the four lexical categories reported by Range. As can be seen, different versions of the same level test are not entirely consistent. For instance, the profiles of the June 1998 and the October 2000 administrations of the pre-first level show considerable variation, particularly where the second 1,000 word frequency level (column 4) and low frequency words (column 6) are concerned.

Table 3: Variation in the Lexical Distribution of Item Options on the First, Pre-first, and Second Level Test Forms

Test Level	Administration Date	First 1,000 Types (%)	Second 1,000 Types (%)	AWL Types (%)	Low frequency Types (%)
First	Oct. 2000	1 (1.1)	0 (0.0)	3 (3.2)	91 (95.8)
	June 2000	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (2.1)	94 (97.9)
	Oct. 1999	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (2.1)	94 (97.9)
	June 1999	2 (2.1)	4 (4.2)	5 (5.2)	85 (88.5)
	Oct. 1998	4 (4.3)	5 (5.4)	3 (3.3)	80 (87.0)
	June 1998	1 (1.1)	2 (2.2)	8 (8.7)	81 (88.0)
Pre-first	Oct. 2000	6 (6.3)	6 (6.3)	16 (16.7)	68 (70.8)
	June 2000	4 (4.2)	7 (7.3)	21 (21.9)	64 (66.7)
	Oct. 1999	3 (3.1)	10 (10.4)	23 (24.0)	60 (62.5)
	June 1999	5 (5.2)	8 (8.3)	23 (24.0)	60 (62.5)
	Oct. 1998	4 (4.3)	6 (6.5)	29 (31.5)	53 (57.6)
	June 1998	10 (10.9)	18 (19.6)	21 (22.8)	43 (46.7)
Second	Oct. 2000	15 (37.5)	17 (42.5)	3 (7.5)	5 (12.5)
	June 2000	16 (40.0)	13 (32.5)	10 (25.0)	1 (2.5)
	Oct. 1999	10 (25.0)	8 (20.0)	14 (35.0)	8 (20.0)
	June 1999	10 (25.0)	11 (27.5)	14 (35.0)	5 (12.5)
	Oct. 1998	15 (37.5)	7 (17.5)	15 (37.5)	3 (7.5)
	June 1998	15 (37.5)	9 (22.2)	7 (17.5)	9 (22.5)

The Multiple-choice Vocabulary Options and their Relationship to the Examinees

The results pertaining to research question 2 are displayed in Table 2. The targeted examinees are shown in the second column, and the targeted vocabulary sizes of the examinees are shown in the third column. These can be compared to the lexical composition of the different test levels. For instance, at the fourth level, second year junior high school students are expected to have a vocabulary of approximately 1,300 words. The test options match this target well as they are taken primarily from the first and second 1,000 most frequent words of English.

A Comparison of the Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension Sections

Our final research question concerned the degree of consistency between the vocabulary and reading comprehension sections of the *Eiken*. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Coverage of the Vocabulary Section Options, Vocabulary Item Sentences and Reading Section Passages

Test Level	Word List	Options: Types (%)	Sentence Stems: Types (%)	Reading Passages: Types (%)
First	1st 1,000	8 (1.4)	182 (58.5)	526 (51.4)
	2nd 1,000	11 (1.9)	39 (12.5)	112 (10.9)
	AWL	23 (4.1)	28 (9.0)	141 (13.8)
	Low Frequency	523 (92.6)	62 (19.9)	244 (23.9)
Pre-first	1st 1,000	32 (5.7)	172 (62.3)	385 (54.3)
	2nd 1,000	55 (9.7)	33 (12.0)	81 (11.4)
	AWL	133 (23.4)	22 (8.0)	80 (11.3)
	Low Frequency	125 (61.1)	49 (17.8)	163 (23.0)
Second	1st 1,000	77 (33.5)	107 (79.3)	311 (73.0)
	2nd 1,000	64 (27.8)	14 (10.4)	38 (8.9)
	AWL	58 (25.2)	4 (3.0)	29 (6.8)
	Low Frequency	31 (13.5)	10 (7.4)	48 (11.3)
Pre-second	1st 1,000	143 (61.1)	106 (80.9)	252 (78.5)
	2nd 1,000	57 (24.3)	11 (8.4)	21 (6.5)
	AWL	17 (7.3)	2 (1.5)	9 (2.8)
	Low Frequency	17 (7.3)	12 (9.2)	39 (12.1)
Third	1st 1,000	167 (77.7)	113 (75.3)	184 (82.9)
	2nd 1,000	39 (18.1)	15 (10.0)	20 (9.0)
	AWL	3 (1.4)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)
	Low Frequency	6 (2.8)	21 (14.0)	18 (8.1)
Fourth	1st 1,000	161 (81.3)	75 (81.5)	136 (86.1)
	2nd 1,000	34 (17.2)	7 (7.6)	10 (6.3)
	AWL	2 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.6)
	Low Frequency	1 (0.5)	10 (10.9)	11 (7.0)

Item options for all test levels are shown in the third column. A comparison of the percentages found under Sentence Stems % (column 4) and Reading Passages % (column 5) shows that they are relatively close to each other throughout all test levels and for all word categories. In the first through pre-second levels, the sentences have a slightly greater proportion of high frequency vocabulary. This situation is reversed on the third and fourth levels where the vocabulary in the reading section appears to be slightly easier.

Discussion

The Multiple-choice Vocabulary Options

Five main points are deserving of comment. First, the degree of difficulty of the first level vocabulary section is now clear. More than 90% of the item options at the first level are low frequency words. Although low frequency words should be tested at this level, the gap in difficulty between the pre-first and first levels is quite large, as can be seen by the increase (61.1% to 92.6%) in low frequency vocabulary (Table 2).

Second, the largest jump in difficulty occurs between the second and pre-first levels. At the second level, high frequency vocabulary accounts for 61.3% of the distractors and low frequency vocabulary only 13.5%. However, when we move to the pre-first level, these numbers are effectively reversed: high frequency vocabulary has fallen to 15.4% and low frequency vocabulary has risen sharply to 61.1%. This sudden shift validates the subjective experience voiced by many Japanese examinees: The pre-first and first level vocabulary sections are far more difficult than the vocabulary found at other levels of the test.

Third, despite the fact that the first level is a test of low frequency vocabulary and the pre-first level a test of low frequency and academic vocabulary, high frequency words account for 3.3% (1.4% + 1.9%) of the options in the first level and 15.4% (5.7% + 9.7%) in the pre-first level. It is inappropriate to include such options on the highest two levels of the test. In order to illustrate the reason for this, let us look at one example from a pre-first level test administered October 18, 1998.

> The politician got upset when he found his views had been
> ( ) by the journalist's misleading article.
>
> 1 adopted
>
> 2 distorted

3 implied

4 proclaimed

(*Eiken*, 2001b, p. 106)

Because of the frequency-sensitive nature of second language vocabulary acquisition, the higher the frequency level of a particular word, the higher the probability it is known.[3] In the above item, option 1 (***adopted***) is one of the most frequent 1,000 words of English, options 2 (***distorted***) and 3 (***implied***) are part of the AWL, and option 4 (***proclaimed***) is a low frequency item. This mixing of words from very different frequency levels increases the likelihood that a relatively high frequency option such as ***adopted*** will not function effectively as a distractor in the presence of lower frequency vocabulary because many examinees will be able to eliminate it relatively easily, or, if it is the correct option, choose it with little difficulty (see Haladyna, 1994 for an extensive review of multiple-choice item functioning and distractor analysis).

The fourth point concerns the similarity of the lexical profiles of the third, fourth, and fifth levels. Although each of these levels is appropriately focused on high frequency vocabulary, the lack of a shift in emphasis from the first to the second 1,000 word families suggests that there is no significant change in difficulty from one level to the next given the well-known influence of word frequency on lexical acquisition. We investigated this possibility more closely by randomly selecting 25 words each from the third, fourth, and fifth level vocabulary options and checking the precise frequency of those words with the Carroll, Davies, and Richman (1971) word frequency list. The fifth level test form was essentially a test of the 500 most frequent words of English and, as such, was easier than the third and fourth level tests. However, the composition of the third and fourth level tests was extremely similar in terms of word frequency. In addition, when all of the third and fourth level options were compared, it was found that 22.8% (38 out of 167 types) were included on both test levels. This degree of overlap is troubling on tests that are purported to be aimed at different proficiency groups.

Fifth, the major difference at the first level concerns a change made by *Eikyo* between the June and October 1999 administrations. As shown in Table 3, the 1998 and June 1999 administrations display consistent profiles, but the test writers appear to have made the test more difficult beginning with the October 1999 administration, at which time the test becomes almost entirely composed of low frequency vocabulary.

Inconsistencies also appear in the pre-first and second level test forms. For instance, the June 1998 pre-first level test appears to be considerably easier than the October 2000 administration based on the amount of low frequency vocabulary tested on each form—46.7% versus 70.8%. Furthermore, 80% (37.5% + 42.5%) of the vocabulary on the October 2000 second level test form is made up of high frequency vocabulary whereas the same vocabulary levels comprise only 60% of the June 1998 second level form.

The Multiple-choice Vocabulary Options and their Relationship to the Examinees

Our second research question concerned the targeted examinees, their assumed vocabulary sizes, the degree to which the *Eiken* vocabulary section is in accord with the assumed sizes, and the appropriateness of those assumptions. Table 2 shows the targeted examinees by educational level (column 2) and their assumed vocabulary sizes (column 3) as stated by *Eikyo* (2001). Vocabulary size is assumed to increase as grade level rises.

Let us first turn to the question of the degree to which the *Eiken* vocabulary sections are in accord with the target vocabulary sizes shown in Table 2. Answering this question is not entirely straightforward for two reasons. First, we do not know which words *Eikyo* counts as the targeted vocabulary because they do not disclose the word list(s) that they are using. Secondly, although *Eikyo* does not publicly disclose how it counts words, an *Eikyo* representative informed us that the test makers count words "like in a dictionary" (anonymous *Eikyo* representative, personal communication, February 24, 2002). This suggests that *Eikyo* may be counting words in a manner that is similar to our focus on word types. This is an important issue because word counts change significantly depending on what counts as a word. For instance, the first 1,000 high frequency words of English can be counted as 3,126 types or 999 word families.

Because of the large number of interrelationships between the cells in Table 2, we will highlight only a few of the more important points by focusing on the third column (targeted size) and the four columns that show the word type breakdowns for the four types of vocabulary (columns 4 to 7). *Eikyo* assumes that examinees taking the second level of the *Eiken* have a receptive vocabulary of approximately 5,100 words. However, if this is the case, it makes little sense to test the high frequency

words of English, and our data show that high frequency words account for approximately 60% (33.5% + 27.8%) of the words tested at the second level.

A second example of an apparent mismatch can be found at the pre-second level, for which *Eikyo* has stated that examinees should have a receptive vocabulary of approximately 3,600 words. Although *Eikyo* probably intends this figure to be an approximation, it is puzzling that 61.1% of the vocabulary options that we sampled from six different pre-second level tests were chosen from the first 1,000 words of English. These words should present no challenge to a learner with anything approaching a 3,600-word vocabulary.

One final example concerns the fifth through third levels. In spite of the fact that, as noted above, the examinees' vocabulary sizes are expected to increase from 600 words at the fifth level to 2,100 words at the third level, the actual data show that the three sections are made up of broadly similar items. The first 1,000 word level accounts for 81.2% of the words at the fifth level and 77.7% of the items at the third level. The second 1,000-word level accounts for 17.1% (fifth level) and 18.1% (third level) of the items. Thus, expected rises in examinees' receptive vocabularies are not mirrored by changes in the lexical profiles of the items on the test. In sum, we can only conclude that the items on the tests administered from 1998 to 2000 and the assumed vocabulary knowledge of examinees have at best a weak relationship with one another.

The second part of research question 2 asked about the appropriateness of the proposed vocabulary sizes shown in the third column of Table 2. For instance, is it reasonable to expect a third year junior high school student to have a 2,100-word receptive vocabulary? Although we have considerable unpublished data showing that this figure is quite high, there is little published research available to answer this question. However, we believe that the figures proposed in Table 2 are unrealistic in terms of the language acquisition of the average Japanese student. Barrow, Nakanishi, and Ishino (1999) reported that the Japanese learners in their study had receptive vocabularies of approximately 2,400 words on average after six years of formal English education. In other words, first year university students had vocabularies only slightly larger than the 2,100-word vocabulary proposed by *Eikyo* for third year junior high school students.

We can also analyze the appropriateness of the *Eiken* vocabulary section by comparing it with the vocabulary sizes that are endorsed by *Monbu-kagaku-sho*, as specified in *Gakushu Shidou Youryou* (*Monbu-*

kagaku-sho, 2001). In this document, *Monbu-kagaku-sho* suggests vocabulary learning goals for junior and senior high school students. These guidelines state that up to 900 words should selectively be taught during three years of junior high school, including basic vocabulary that relates to aspects of daily life such as seasons, months, days of the week, time, weather, ordinal and cardinal numbers, and the family. Furthermore, the Ministry sets a target of learning an additional 1,800 words for high school students. Thus, Japanese students are expected to learn approximately 2,700 words after six years of formal education. When we compare the *Monbu-kagaku-sho's* suggested vocabulary learning goals and the vocabulary test items on the *Eiken* test, it is difficult to identify a clear relationship between the two, a problem that is particularly acute at the higher levels of the *Eiken*.*

A Comparison of the Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension Sections

As noted in the Results section, the percentages found under Sentence Stems % and Reading Passages % in Table 4 show broad similarities for all test levels and word categories. This is appropriate because both sections should be targeted on the same proficiency level. Large differences would suggest that at least one section is not appropriate for the targeted examinees.

Two additional findings appear in Table 4. First, the multiple-choice options (column 3) at the first and pre-first test levels are composed of more difficult vocabulary than the sentence stems (column 4) and reading passages (column 5). While low frequency vocabulary makes up 92.6% of the options at the first level, it comprises only 19.9% of the sentence stems and 23.9% of the reading passages. At the pre-first level, low-frequency vocabulary accounts for 61.1% of the options, 17.8 % of the sentence stems and 23% of the reading passages. Thus, the multiple-choice vocabulary options in the first and pre-first levels pose the greatest lexical challenge for test takers at those levels.

The second finding concerns the relationship between the options and sentence stems at the third and fourth levels. Some sentence stems appear to be made up of more difficult vocabulary than the options. For instance, at the third level, 14% of the word types in the sentences are low frequency vocabulary, whereas only 2.8% of the options are low frequency. As a result, the sentence stem, whose purpose is to provide context for choosing the correct option, may sometimes be less comprehensible than the options themselves, and examinees may miss an

item not because they lack knowledge of the targeted vocabulary, but because they did not understand the sentence context.

Recommendations for Improving the Eiken Vocabulary Section

Our intention from the beginning of this study has been to investigate the *Eiken* vocabulary section, identify problematic areas, and make specific suggestions for improving the section. It is to this last goal that we now turn.

Our first finding was that the different levels of the *Eiken* vocabulary section do not increase in difficulty in a smoothly graduated fashion, and the difficulty levels of different test forms at the first, pre-first and second level are not consistent (see Table 3). The third and fourth levels show virtually no change and there are large gaps between the second and pre-first and the pre-first and first levels of the test (see Table 2). Although *Eikyo* has chosen this design based on "teachers' opinions and guidance from *Monbu-kagaku-sho*" (name withheld, personal communication, October 12, 2001), the result is an overall design that is at best clumsy and at worst ineffective. One way to remedy this problem would be to apply the following guidelines: (a) high frequency words should not be tested or included as distractors at the first, pre-first, and second levels, (b) the number of items sampled from the *AWL* should be increased at the pre-first, second, pre-second, and third levels, and (c) the first 1,000 words should be gradually deemphasized and the second 1,000 words gradually emphasized as the test moves from the fifth to the third level. *Eikyo* could implement this suggestion by utilizing software such as Range and by consulting multiple word frequency lists of written English when choosing words for inclusion on the tests. A second, and in our opinion, more elegant solution to this problem could be implemented through the proper use of item response theory (IRT). Although *Eikyo* informed us that they are using a form of IRT to analyze the tests (name withheld, personal communication, September 12, 2001), we see little evidence that they have taken advantage of the strengths of IRT. The Rasch model, which is a latent trait measurement model that places person ability and item difficulty on a single log linear scale, would permit *Eikyo* to produce vocabulary sections that sensitively measure lexical knowledge, avoid the gaps that we found at the higher levels of the test, equate test forms relatively easily, make shorter yet more reliable tests, and deliver the tests in a computer-adaptive format (see Bond & Fox, 2001 and Wright & Stone, 1979 for details regarding how these objectives can be achieved with the Rasch model). Using

the Rasch model and word frequency information to model reading development has been undertaken with considerable success in the United States by Lexile (www.lexile.com). This work could serve as a useful model for *Eikyo*.

Our second main finding concerned the use of multiple-choice options from widely varying frequency levels. We recommend that the four options for any single question be drawn from similar word frequency levels. As outlined earlier, the influence of word frequency effects is so pervasive that higher frequency distractors can be comprehended relatively easily and either eliminated or chosen as the correct option. By using options from similar frequency levels, the effectiveness of the distractors can be enhanced and the possibility of successful guessing minimized. This could best be implemented by consulting multiple word frequency lists when selecting vocabulary item options.

Our third major suggestion concerns our finding that the assumed vocabulary sizes of the targeted examinees frequently bear little relation to the difficulty of the items included in the vocabulary section. One clear example of the current mismatch can be found in the third level test. The assumed vocabulary size is 2,100 words, yet the third level vocabulary section is primarily testing the first 1,000 high frequency words of English. If *Eikyo* insists on using vocabulary size figures such as the ones reported in Table 2, then they should construct the different levels of their tests to more closely match those figures.

Fourth, we have criticized the proposed vocabulary sizes summarized in Table 2 as being largely divorced from reality. Our recommendation, which we direct at *Eikyo*, *Monbu-kagaku-sho*, and second language researchers in Japan, is that more empirical investigations of the lexical knowledge of Japanese learners at all levels of the formal education system are needed. When *Eikyo* suggests that specific levels of the *Eiken* are appropriate for learners in a particular grade in school, those figures and the amounts of lexical growth associated with them should be based on empirical studies that suggest what amount of lexical growth is challenging yet generally achievable. In this regard, we would like to pose three broad research questions to *Eikyo* and independent researchers suggested by the data in Table 2: (a) For what percentage of Japanese students are the vocabulary size figures accurate? (b) What rate of lexical growth do Japanese students show throughout their junior high school, senior high school, and university studies? (c) To what degree do published figures such as those shown in Table 2 influence Japanese learners? This last question concerns test washback and

is related to our belief that the vocabulary learning goals established by *Monbu-kagaku-sho* for junior and senior high school students are too low.

A New Eiken? A New Eikyo?

Although we believe that the *Eiken* would be improved if the above suggestions were implemented, our recommendations may be analogous to repairing an old car: the repairs help, but what is really needed is a new car. What form might the "new *Eiken*" and the "new *Eikyo*" take? Our list of wishes is long, but we will discuss only three.

First, we would like to see *Eikyo* undertake a reconceptualizion of the entire vocabulary section based on what is currently known about text processing and the second language lexicon on one hand and item response theory (IRT) on the other. As with every other professional language testing organization, *Eikyo* must constantly strive to better understand the underlying construct that they wish to test. At a minimum, this would involve the careful study of recent theories of lexical knowledge and its interaction with text comprehension (e.g., Kintsch, 1998), the second language lexicon (e.g., Pavlenko, 1999), and vocabulary test validation (e.g., Perkins & Linville, 1987). The second base upon which a reconceptualized *Eiken* would rest is statistical theory. As stated earlier, the appropriate use of IRT would permit *Eikyo* to design, refine, and administer the vocabulary section more effectively and circumvent many of the problems we have pointed out.

Our second, and more radical suggestion, is that *Eikyo* should carry out detailed empirical investigations of test functioning that would reveal whether an independent vocabulary section is even needed. A number of studies conducted over the past three decades have consistently shown that vocabulary knowledge is the primary factor underlying reading comprehension. As a result, it may be redundant and therefore inefficient to include both reading comprehension and vocabulary sections on the test. Moreover, current approaches to language testing in general (Chapelle, 1998) and vocabulary testing in particular (Read & Chapelle, 2001) suggest that placing lexical items in rich contexts is the most valid way in which to test examinees' lexical knowledge. In addition, this testing format would overcome the negative washback associated with the vocabulary section of the *Eiken*. Books (e.g., the six volume *Eiken Pass Tanjyukugo*, 1998) and Internet sites (e.g., http: /www19.big.or.jp/~hmnomura/eikenbbs2/eikenbbs2.cgi) dedicated

to helping Japanese learners successfully pass the *Eiken* consistently promote a heavily decontextualized approach to vocabulary learning despite the fact that studies on lexical acquisition (e.g., Prince, 1996) have shown that the overuse of decontextualized vocabulary study can result in learners who cannot break away from a reliance on translation, are unable to exploit the lexicon effectively for production, and have slow and effortful processing of L2 syntax and word identification.

Our final wish is that as a socially responsible corporation, *Eikyo* should be more forthcoming about test functioning. Validation studies need to be undertaken for every section of the *Eiken*, and the results of these studies published so that language testing professionals, teachers, and test takers can examine them in detail. In addition, a test booklet disclosing section and test reliabilities, intercorrelations among test sections, and other quantitative and qualitative data should be made publicly available. One of the best examples of this practice in the field of second language testing is Educational Testing Service, which has long published information about the functioning of the TOEFL test in articles written for the general public and technical research reports that disclose the results of detailed investigations into specific sections of the test (see www.toefl.org for general information and a large number of technical research reports available online). This is all the more important because independent studies (e.g., MacGregor, 1997 and this study) have arrived at the same general conclusion: the *Eiken* has potentially serious reliability and validity problems. In addition to the employees of *Eikyo*, a potentially large number of language testing professionals both inside and outside of Japan could lend their expertise to the development of improved tests.

Conclusion

In this study we have made suggestions for improving the vocabulary section of the *Eiken* based on an analysis of the lexical categories of the item options, sentence stems and reading passages on all seven levels of the *Eiken* administered over a three year period. It is our hope that further studies on the *Eiken* will be undertaken both by independent researchers and by researchers working together with *Eikyo* in order to improve what is unarguably one of the most important proficiency tests in Japan. The Japanese students and adults who take future versions of the test deserve no less.

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Notes

1. We have called *Daimon 1* (section 1 of the written part) the vocabulary section because the majority of the items test knowledge of single words, two-word verbs, or idioms.
2. The fifth level of the *Eiken* does not have a reading test section.
3. Although a large number of factors, such as concreteness, phonological and orthographic regularity, part of speech and pronuncibility influence word difficulty, a considerable amount of research evidence from the field of language testing (e.g., Miller & Lee, 1993; Read, 1988; and Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001) and second language lexical acquisition (e.g., Kirsner, 1994 and Ellis, 1994, 2001) has shown that word frequency is the primary factor underlying lexical difficulty.
4. One reviewer raised the point that other factors, such as the role of cram schools, affect the lexical acquisition of Japanese learners. If *Eikyo* considers these factors, it is their responsibility to describe how such factors are accounted for and how they influence decisions about test construction.

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The Effect of Three Types of Written Feedback on Student Motivation

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This article reports on the effect of three types of written feedback on student motivation at a girls' private high school in Japan. It addresses the question of whether students who receive meaning-focused feedback show a greater degree of positive motivation than students who receive either positive comments or error-focused feedback. The only statistically significant difference among the three types of feedback was that the positive-comments group was significantly less eager to get their journals back each week than the meaning-focused feedback group. The overall findings of this study reconfirm the positive effect journal writing, regardless of feedback type, has on motivation. All three groups reported that they felt it had a positive effect on their English, and that it had been a worthwhile experience for them.

本論文は、日本の某私立女子高校を調査対象にして、英文日記の３通りの筆記によるフィードバック法を比較し、それらが生徒の＜やる気＞に及ぼす効果について報告したものである。日記の「内容に関するフィードバック」を受ける生徒が、「誉め言葉によるフィードバック」、あるいは英語の「誤謬訂正のフィードバック」を受けるものよりも、より＜やる気＞を引き起こされるものかどうかという点を検証した。3通りのフィードバックを比較して、統計数値上唯一有意差があったのは、「誉め言葉のフィードバック」を受けるグループは、「内容に関するフィードバック」を受けるグループに比べて、毎週の日記の返却（つまりフィードバックされること）にそれほど熱心ではなかったということである。ただ研究全般から再確認できることは、いかなるフィードバックであれ、英文日記を書くことは、英語学習に対する生徒の＜やる気＞に対してプラス効果を及ぼすということであり、それは３グループすべての生徒が、日記をつけることは自分たちの英語にプラス効果をもたらし、やりがいのあるものであったと報告していることに表れている。

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The larger one-year study on which this article is based (see Duppenthaler, 2002) investigated the effect of three different types of feedback on the "improvement" of students' journal entries, the possibility of a transfer effect to in-class compositions, and possible influence on the strength of motivation. The present article is limited to the question of motivation (see Stern, 1983; Oxford, 1994; and Dörnyei, 2001 for overviews and general discussions of motivation). The research question was: Do students who receive meaning-focused feedback show a greater degree of positive motivation than students who receive either positive comments or error-focused feedback?

The three types of feedback provided in the students' journals were (a) meaning-focused feedback, in which I engaged in an ongoing and cumulative, interactive dialog with the participants, providing commentary on the content of each journal entry, suggesting future topics, and asking for additional information and clarification; (b) positive comments, in which I responded with phrases such as "well done," "keep up the good work" and "keep writing," and with occasional short positive comments on the content of a few scattered journal entries so that students would know, as in the case of the other two treatment groups, that I was reading their entries, but did not engage in an ongoing interactive dialog, or ask for additional information and clarification; and (c) error-focused feedback, in which I corrected all errors, in red ink, in the participants' journal entries with no revision required on the part of the participants.

A review of the literature indicated that several researchers (Leki, 1992; Holmes & Moulton, 1997) had voiced the opinion that meaning-focused feedback had a positive effect on motivation. Although some researchers (Semke, 1984; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Aly, 1992, Fazio, 2001) reported little positive value for error correction, many students seem to prefer it (see for example Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Radecki & Swales, 1988; Harrison, 1993; Timson, Grow, & Matsuoka, 1999). It was therefore felt that error-focused feedback might be viewed positively by students, and thus might lead to increased motivation. Finally, it was felt that positive comments should be included as one of the treatment types because informal discussions with teachers in Japanese high schools who had used journals led me to believe that this was a common, if not the most common, type of feedback.

Although, in a general sense, meaning-focused feedback may seem to fit into the general feedback category of commentary, in which the teacher makes written comments or asks questions focused on either

grammatical errors, content, or the students' ideas, it is in fact a rather different thing in that it is not intended to be evaluative. "Commentary" in this case consists of exchanges in which the teacher is "a participant in an ongoing written conversation with the student, rather than an evaluator who corrects or comments on the students' writing" (Worthington, 1997, p. 3).

With regard to error correction, Radecki and Swales (1988), Cathcart and Olsen (1976), and Harrison (1993), all reported that students prefer teachers to correct all surface errors at least to the extent that it is possible. A survey by Timson, Grow, and Matsuoka (1999) to determine the error correction preferences of 1,228 Japanese, second language learners enrolled in various departments at nine universities in Japan found overwhelming agreement among their respondents that "error correction is necessary and desirable in order to increase second language fluency" (p. 145) and that "a majority of those surveyed desire to have their errors corrected" (p. 145).

There may be several possible explanations for the popularity of error correction among students. The main one may simply be that many teachers use this type of feedback. This may mean that students are used to it and therefore comfortable with it. It may also be seen as the type of feedback that requires the least effort on the students' part. After all, all students need to do to improve the original draft is to rewrite, copying the corrections that the teacher has already made for them, reducing their main task to one of reading the teacher's handwriting.

According to Staton (1988), the publication of two National Institute of Education reports, "Analysis of Dialogue Journal Writing as a Communicative Event," and "Dialogue Writing: Analysis of Student-Teachers Interactive Writing in the Learning of English as a Second Language," "stirred increased interest in the use of dialogue journals in the ESL community" (p. xi). However, even before this, the classroom use of journals was not all that uncommon. *The Journal Book* (1987), edited by Toby Fulwiler, a longtime proponent of using journals, contains 42 articles, by 42 different authors, all singing the praises of journal writing in teaching situations from elementary school through university, and in disciplines as varied as English poetry and experimental physics. The entire volume "is about journals, and their use in developing students' minds and selves" (Staton, 1987, p. 4). The authors in this collection frequently mention the positive effects on motivation that journals have.

An additional impetus for the use of journals as ESL/EFL language teaching tools was given by TESOL's (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other

Languages) publication of two books specifically dealing with journal writing, *Students and Teachers Writing Together: Perspectives on Journal Writing* (Peyton, 1990) and *Dialogue Journal Writing with Nonnative English Speakers: A Handbook for Teachers* (Peyton & Reed, 1990).

Over the years, journals have not only been used in language teaching classrooms throughout the world but have also been used in work with deaf children (Staton, 1985; Kluwin & Blumenthal, 1991), as a part of preservice teacher training programs (Brinton & Holten, 1988; Bacon, 1995), in multilingual classes (McFarland, 1992; Moulton & Holmes, 1994), with the learning-disabled (McGettigan, 1987; Gaustad & Messenheimer-Young, 1991), with gifted children (Armstrong 1994), through the media of computers and e-mail (McQuail, 1995; Yeoman, 1995), and as a means of enhancing communication and understanding in schools (Dana, 1993; Hanrahan, 1999). As Kirby, Liner, and Vinz (1988) note, "the journal is one of those phenomena of English teaching: an instant hit with teachers everywhere. It zoomed like a skyrocket through every cookbook and conference . . . it has been used and abused at one time or another by most English teachers" (p. 57).

The popularity of journals can also be seen as a natural extension of the Whole Language movement as outlined by Goodman (1986), which "rests upon the premise that language is more easily acquired when teaching and learning are all inclusive, contextualized and purposeful" (de Godev, 1994, p. 2), and by the work of Swain (1985, 1995) and others on input and output (see Woodfield, 1997; and Robinson, 1997 for more on input and output). In addition, Holmes and Moulton (1997) note the fairly commonly held view that "through responding to the content of students' writing and not correcting errors, teachers can...[control] affective variables that affect the writer's motivation" (p. 620) and report that their students believed that journal writing enhanced their motivation to write and increased their fluency.

There have been a number of studies carried out in Japan involving the use of journals (see for example Konoeda, 1997; Hirose & Sasaki, 2000). The nine articles in the collection of articles edited by Casanave (1993a) on the use of journals at the Shonan Fujisawa campus of Keio University and Keio High School are of particular relevance to this study. Not only do they deal with journal writing in Japan, but also several describe teacher-student dialogue journals. However, only one of the articles (Harrison, 1993) deals with the use of journals in a high school setting.

All of the authors in the collection are positively disposed toward the

use of journals even though, as many of them point out, they require a great deal of time and energy on the part of the teachers. Casanave is fairly representative when she writes, "In the Japan context, at least, journal writing may constitute the single most beneficial activity for the development of students' confidence and communicative ability in English" (p. 4).

Casanave (1993b) used written and oral data in both English and Japanese to investigate students' views on journal writing. The subjects consisted of four intact classes with 30 students in each class. The students engaged in journal writing during the course of one semester. At the end of the semester the students were asked to write a journal entry on their journal writing experience. They were not asked to respond to detailed questions, but simply to comment in any way they wished on what the experience of journal writing had been like for them. Casanave then used these final entries, along with interviews, as her data source. She found that the majority, but not all, of the students found the journal experience to be a positive one. "They believe that their English language and writing abilities improved, that they became more fluent writers (and in some cases, speakers), and that they developed personally and intellectually through the journal writing process" (p. 4).

Although researchers who have investigated the students' own opinions on what they think of the experience of journal writing, usually through interviews and questionnaires, generally report positive feelings toward the experience, there are always at least a few students who report that they do not like keeping journals (see for example Lucas, 1990, 1992; Casanave, 1993b; Holmes & Moulton, 1995; Skerritt, 1995).

It is interesting to note that both Holmes and Moulton (1995) and Casanave (1993b) mentioned that students who had more experience with the target language were the least comfortable with (i.e., the most negative about) journal writing. In the case of Holmes and Moulton, one student, Dang, the "reluctant participant" in the title of their article, had spent five years in the United States during which time he had graduated from an American high school. Holmes and Moulton note that if teachers bothered to ask, "they would probably find that there is a contrarian like Dang in every class" (p. 242).

Casanave (1993b) also reported that, "A handful of other students, particularly returnee students [i.e., returning to live in Japan after having lived abroad for a period of time] at the end of three semesters of English, remarked that they 'hated journal writing,' yet recognized that it benefited their English in a number of ways" (p. 100). It is interesting to

note that Radecki and Swales (1988), in their study of ESL students' reactions to written comments on their essays also found, through student questionnaires, that as students progress in their English language development they become less tolerant of their teachers' feedback and "more restricted [in] the role they generally assign to the English instructor" (p. 364). However, they go on to say that they had "little hard evidence of any relationship between the type of student respondent and the proficiency level in ESL writing" (p. 364). Skerritt (1995) found that students felt the experience worthwhile only if it allowed for personal reflection and if they were certain that the teacher was reading their entries.

The present study built on the existing body of research on journals in educational settings. It extended it in four ways: (a) by using journals as a means of delivering different types of feedback, (b) by carrying it out in a new environment (i.e., a Japanese girls' high school), (c) by using a relatively large sample size of 99 students, and (d) by providing treatment over an entire academic year.

Methods

Site

The school at which this study was carried out is a girls' high school of mid-sized enrollment in the Kansai area. The general emphasis of the English program at the school is almost equally divided between the four skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening, but with a slightly heavier emphasis on reading and writing. English is a required subject at the school from junior high school through high school. It is a fairly typical Japanese high school in that the teachers consider their main job to be the preparation of students for college entrance exams. Even though, due to the decline in the birth rate, there are now more places at colleges and universities than applicants, there is still competition to enter top-ranking institutions of higher learning; any high school whose students can enter such schools will have fewer problems in attracting potential students and thus a greater chance of survival. This opinion seems to be fairly common among Japanese high school teachers whether they are working at public or private high schools.

Participants

Second-year students at the school are divided into five levels based on their performance during their first year of high school: one higher-level class, one middle-level class, and three lower-level classes.

The students in the three lower-level classes are assigned to individual classes on the basis of alphabetical order. The 99 participants in this study consisted of the students in the three lower-level classes. Second-year students were selected for a number of reasons. First, the teachers felt that second-year students had enough English and time to write a journal in English. In fact, they felt that this was the only year that it was possible for the students to do it--first-year students were either too busy getting used to school or did not have enough English to be able to write a journal in English, and third-year students were either too busy preparing for entrance exams or under too much pressure worrying about taking them. Second, the lower-level students were selected because they constituted the largest group of students at one ability level. Third, the teachers were less willing to involve higher-level students in anything that might "distract" them from their main task of preparing for college entrance exams. Finally, it was assumed that motivation would be less of a problem for higher-level student and that any increase in motivation might have a greater positive effect on lower-level students.

Materials

Bilingual Pretreatment Questionnaire

A bilingual pretreatment questionnaire was developed by the author in consultation with the Japanese English teachers at the school and an American consultant with several years of teaching experience at a Japanese high school in Japan. The final version (see first 10 questions in Appendix 1) consisted of ten questions designed to determine the students' language history (i.e., familiarity with and exposure to English outside of their regular classes). It was used to check for any pretreatment differences among the three groups.

Bilingual Posttreatment Questionnaire

A bilingual posttreatment questionnaire (see Appendix 1) was also developed by the author in consultation with the group mentioned above. The final version consisted of 20 questions. The first ten questions were exactly the same as those in the pretreatment questionnaire and were used to check for any differences among treatment groups that might have occurred during the year. Questions 11 through 20 were designed to find out how the students had felt about keeping a journal, and to see if the experience had resulted in any motivational differences among the three groups.

The posttreatment questionnaire was given at the end of the academic year. No significant differences were found among the three treatment groups with regard to their degree of extracurricular exposure to English prior to the study (i.e., the first ten questions). An examination of the raw data showing how many students selected each option indicated that the numbers had remained almost exactly the same as in the case of the pretreatment questionnaire. In other words, there had been no changes with regard to extracurricular English activities during the course of the year.

Questions 11 through 20, which did not appear in the Pretreatment Questionnaire, were designed to determine (a) the degree of either positive or negative feelings the students had toward writing in their journals and (b) whether they felt the experience had been a positive one irrespective of how they had felt about having to do the writing or about putting in the time and effort. A 5-point Likert scale was used for each question (1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = disagree, 5 = strongly disagree). Question 20 was designed to elicit a written response in English. All of the students wrote comments. I coded these using the same 5-point Likert scale used for the other questions so that the question could be included in the statistical analysis with the other questions. In this case, students who wrote that they liked English more than before were given a four or a five depending on the strength of their response. Students who wrote that their attitude had not changed were given a three. Those who wrote that it had had a negative influence were given a one or a two depending on the strength of their response.

Procedures

In order to avoid the problem of group differences—always a possibility with intact classes—the students were blocked into three treatment (i.e., feedback) groups, according to their scores on a 40-item, multiple-choice cloze test, during the first week of school (Group 1, meaning-focused; Group 2, positive comments; Group 3, error-focused). The split-half adjusted reliability for the cloze test was .82. As mentioned before, all second-year students are divided into five classes based on their performance during their first year of high school. The students in the three lower-level classes (i.e., those who took part in this study) are then assigned to their three respective classes on the basis of alphabetical order. These students are therefore a rather homogeneous group of individuals. Reliability can be depressed by a number of

different factors: a small number of items in the test, setting, time span, history, and the homogeneity of the group being tested. As noted by Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh, (1990), "The reliability coefficient increases as the spread, or heterogeneity, of the subjects who take the test increases. Conversely, the more homogeneous the group is with respect to the trait being measured, the lower will be the reliability coefficient" (p. 280). Given the extreme likelihood of this being a rather homogeneous group, it was felt that the level of reliability was acceptable for blocking purposes. Students were blocked into three groups consisting of exactly 33 students per group (for more on block design see Kirk, 1995).

The result of this procedure was that each treatment group was made up of a similar proportion of students who were enrolled in classes which were taught by each of the teachers who taught the second-year students (i.e., students were blocked both by ability and across class lines). I was therefore, able to control for course content, possible initial ability level differences among the students, and teacher and instructional differences that might have occurred during the students' regular course of study. In addition, several other procedures were carried out in order to ensure that there were no significant differences among the groups prior to treatment.

During the second week of school, the participants filled in the bilingual pretreatment questionnaire. An analysis of the questionnaire indicated that there were no significant differences among the three treatment groups. Because questions 1, 4, 5, and 9 were Yes/No questions they were coded using "one" for yes and "zero" for no. The dichotomous nature of these questions meant that logistic regression, rather than ANOVA or Linear Regression, was the preferred method of analysis. This was because unlike ANOVA and Regression, in which the dependent variable should be continuous, "Logistic [Regression] is relatively free of restrictions, and with the capacity to analyze a mix of all types of predictors (continuous, discrete, and dichotomous)" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996, p. 578). In this type of analysis, if the chi-square is small, "then one concludes that the two variables are independent; a poor fit leads to a large chi-square . . . and the conclusion that the two variables are related" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996, p. 56). Logistic regression for questions 1, 4, 5, and 9 in the Pretreatment Questionnaire showed small chi-square and p values, which indicated that there were no significant differences among the three groups.

Pretreatment Questionnaire questions 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, and 10 were on a scale, which meant that a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA),

rather than ANOVA, was the preferred method of analysis because the research design included more than one dependent variable. Like ANOVA, MANOVA is a statistical procedure for testing whether the difference among the means of two or more groups is significant. However,

> MANOVA has a number of advantages over ANOVA. First, by measuring several DVs [Dependent Variables] instead of only one, the researcher improves the chance of discovering what it is that changes as a result of different treatments and their interactions... A second advantage of MANOVA over a series of ANOVAs when there are several DVs is protection against inflated Type I error [i.e., rejection of a true null hypothesis] due to multiple tests of (likely) correlated DVs. (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996, pp. 375-376)

A one-way MANOVA for Pretreatment Questionnaire questions 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, and 10 also showed no significant differences among the three treatment groups.

The students also completed an in-class writing assignment during the second week of school. The in-class writing sheet included a simple set of instructions in English, a four-frame picture sequence that the students were to use as the basis for a 200 to 250 word story, the first line of the story, and space to write the story and record the number of words written. The picture sequence was selected for its clear story line and because it did not require prior knowledge of the subject. A number of researchers (Ross, Shortreed, & Robb, 1988; Rousseau, Bottge, & Dy, 1993; Ishikawa, 1995) have used similar picture sequences to gather writing samples from students.

A one-way MANOVA was performed on the in-class writing assignment using total number of words, number of error-free clauses, number of clauses, four vocabulary indices generated by the VocabProfile computer program (sometimes called the LFP [Lexical Frequency Profile]), and the Flesch-Kincaid Readability Index as the dependent variables, and group assignment as the independent variable. No significant differences were found.

The results of the above analyses served to indicate that there were no significant group differences among the three treatment groups. In addition, in order to determine if any significant differences had existed among the three treatment groups at the beginning of the treatment, a one-way MANOVA was performed using the first four weeks of journal entries. There were no significant differences among the three treatment groups.

The results of the above analyses all indicated that there were no significant differences among the three treatment groups at the outset of the study. The possible novelty of the treatment (i.e., Hawthorne effect) would seem to have been eliminated by the fact that the treatment lasted for one year.

The above would all seem to indicate that any significant differences among the three groups that might have developed during the course of the academic year could be attributed to the effect of the treatment the students received during that time rather than to any group differences that might have existed prior to the outset of the treatment period, or to group differences which might have been the result of differences in ability, course content, teacher or instructional methods.

During the course of the year, the students wrote in their journals on a weekly basis. The journals were collected at the end of each week. I read each journal, provided the appropriate feedback, and returned them to the school so that the students could collect their journals from their homeroom teachers on the following Monday.

Analysis

Procedures related to the identification of possible outliers, the evaluation of the assumptions of normality of sampling distributions, homogeneity or variance-covariance matrices, linearity, and multicollinearity were carried out following recommendations found in Tabachnick and Fidell (1996). The overall alpha level of this study was set at .05; however, a Bonferroni type adjustment was made in order to guard against inflated Type I error. The adjusted alpha for all Multivariate Analysis of Variance tests was set at .005 (the original alpha level of .05 divided by 10, the total number of Mulitvarate Analysis of Variance tests in the study). In addition an adjustment was made in the alpha level for all Univariate F tests. In this case, the adjusted alpha for the Mulitvarate Analysis of Variance tests (.005) was divided by the number of dependent variables (DVs). In the case of the pretreatment and posttreatment questionnaires the adjusted alpha was .0005 (.005/10 DVs).

The descriptive statistics for the Posttreatment Questionnaire items directly related to motivation (questions 11 through 20) are presented in Table 1. It should be noted here that in this particular case the three treatment groups were slightly unequal in size, (Group 1, 30 students; Group 2, 30 students; and Group 3, 29 students). This was because three or four students in each group had not answered all of the questions and the statistical program being used automatically drops such cases from

the analysis. However, this slight difference in group size should have no effect on the overall findings.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Posttreatment Questionnaire Questions 11 through 20

Question (Q)	Min	Max	Mean	Std.Err.	Std.Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Q11	1.0	5.0	2.489	0.1042	0.999	0.502	-0.170
Q12	1.0	4.0	1.934	0.0824	0.786	0.538	-0.096
Q13	1.0	5.0	2.733	0.1169	1.109	0.196	-0.363
Q14	1.0	5.0	2.196	0.0992	0.952	0.610	0.245
Q15	1.0	5.0	2.560	0.1107	1.056	0.271	-0.357
Q16	1.0	5.0	2.619	0.0975	0.935	0.342	0.020
Q17	1.0	4.0	1.826	0.0882	0.846	0.675	-0.416
Q18	1.0	5.0	2.891	0.1053	1.010	0.418	-0.172
Q19	1.0	5.0	2.326	0.1348	1.293	0.643	-0.642
Q20	1.0	5.0	2.511	0.0920	0.883	0.259	-0.227

A one-way MANOVA analysis of questions 11 through 20 indicated significant differences among the three groups at $p = .0006$ (see Table 2). These questions were on a scale, which meant that a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), rather than ANOVA, was the preferred method of analysis because the research design included more than one dependent variable.

Table 2: Multivariate Analysis of Variance (Effect = Group) Posttreatment Questionnaire Questions 11 through 20

Effect	Wilks' Lambda	Rao's R	df 1	df 2	p-level
1	0.5637	2.555	20	154	.0006611*

* $p < .005$

As we can see in Table 2, instead of the univariate *F* value, the multivariate *F* value, ***Wilks' lambda***, and ***Rao's R*** are shown. The MANOVA module of the statistical software program used in this study uses three different multivariate test criteria (***Wilks' lambda***, ***Rao's R***, and ***Phillai-Bartlett trace***) and reports two of these in the Table of all Effects as shown in Table 2. These tests are "based on a comparison of the error variance/covariance matrix and the effect variance/covariance matrix. The 'covariance' here is included because the measures [i.e., variables] are correlated and you must take this correlation into account when performing the significance test" (StatSoft, 1984, p. 387).

Univariate *F* tests for each dependent variable, with the adjusted alpha of $p < .0005$ used in order to guard against inflated Type I error, indicated that there was one significant difference: Question 19 (I looked forward to getting my journal back each week) at $p = .0000$ (see Table 3).

Table 3: Univariate F Tests with Degrees of Freedom (2, 86)
Table of Specific Effects for Posttreatment Questionnaire
Questions 11 through 20

Question (Q)	Mean Sqr Effect	Mean Sqr Error	f(df1,2) 2,86	p-level
Q11	2.277	0.900	2.528	0.0857
Q12	0.221	0.591	0.374	0.6886
Q13	6.906	1.112	6.205	0.0030
Q14	0.241	0.928	0.259	0.7718
Q15	1.887	1.117	1.688	0.1908
Q16	0.761	0.871	0.873	0.4211
Q17	0.758	0.621	1.221	0.2999
Q18	0.926	0.982	0.942	0.3935
Q19	13.266	1.290	10.278	0.0000 *
Q20	0.302	0.786	0.385	0.6815

* $p < .000$

As mentioned earlier, the use of the MANOVA allows us to determine if there are significant differences among group means when there are several dependent variables. The use of a post hoc test allows us to determine exactly where these significant differences lie. As the three groups were slightly unequal in size, post hoc comparisons were conducted

using both the Tukey HSD (Honest Significant Difference) for unequal sample sizes and the Scheffé test. Although these two tests produced the same results, the Scheffé test proved to be the more conservative and was therefore used (see Table 4).

Table 4: Scheffé Test for Posttreatment Questionnaire Question 19

GROUP	(means)	{1} 1.833333	{2} 3.033333	{3} 1.931034
1	{1}		0.0004780	0.9469634
2	{2}	0.0004780*		0.0016049
3	{3}	0.9469634	0.0016049	

* $p < .0005$

As can be seen from the above (Table 4), with regard to question 19, Group 2 was significantly different from Group 1, but there were no other significant differences.

In order to interpret the results of the posttreatment questionnaire let us look at Table 5. Table 5 shows a list of questions, 11 through 20, with each question number and the average for each group. For the questionnaire, 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = disagree, and 5 = strongly disagree. The wording of each question is included in Table 5 for the reader's convenience.

Table 5: Posttreatment Questionnaire Questions 11 through 20 Averages

Question	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Q15	Q16	Q17	Q18	Q19	Q20
Group 1 Average	2.3	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.8	2.6	1.8	2.9	2.0	2.5
Group 2 Average	2.6	2.0	2.9	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.0	2.8	3.0	2.6
Group 3 Average	2.8	2.0	3.2	2.4	2.8	3.0	1.9	3.3	2.2	2.7

Table 5 (Continued)

Question 11:	I enjoyed writing in my journal.
Question 12:	I think writing in my journal had a positive effect on my English.
Question 13:	I would like to continue writing in a journal next year.
Question 14:	I enjoy writing in English more now than I did a year ago.
Question 15:	I think my writing is better now than a year ago.
Question 16:	I can express myself in writing more easily now than a year ago.
Question 17:	I think writing in my journal was a good experience for me.
Question 18:	Writing in my journal made me want to study English more.
Question 19:	I looked forward to getting my journal back each week.
Question 20:	Has writing a journal changed your attitude toward English?

Results and Discussion

The reliability of self-report questionnaires is always suspect and this fact should be kept in mind when interpreting the results of this study as well as any other that uses them. However, it should also be kept in mind that "almost all motivation assessment uses some sort of 'self report' measure" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 199).

In order to interpret the results of the posttreatment questionnaire, the following standard was used: 1.8 - 2.3 = agree, 2.4 - 2.8 = agree less strongly, 2.9 - 3.3 = neutral, 3.4-5 disagree. Using this standard we can interpret the above averages for each question as follows:

Question 11: Group 1 most enjoyed writing in the journals, with the other two groups enjoying the journals, but to a lesser degree.

Question 12: All groups agreed that writing in their journals had a positive effect on their English.

Question 13: Group 1 agreed it would like to continue writing in a journal next year, while Groups 2 and 3 neither agreed nor disagreed.

Question 14: Groups 1 and 2 enjoyed writing in English more at the end of the year than a year earlier. This sentiment was shared to a slightly lesser degree by Group 3.

Question 15: Group 2 felt that its writing was better than a year earlier, and the other two groups agreed to a lesser extent that their own writing had improved.

Question 16: Group 3 neither agreed nor disagreed that it could express itself in writing more easily than a year earlier, but Groups 1 and 2 agreed slightly that they could do so.

Question 17: All groups felt that writing in a journal was a good experience.

Question 18: Group 2 felt to some extent that writing in a journal made them want to study English more, but Groups 1 and 3 were neutral about this.

Question 19: Groups 1 and 3 looked forward to getting their journals back each week, but Group 2 was neutral on this.

Question 20: All groups agreed to some extent that writing journals had changed their attitude toward English. An examination of the written comments accompanying this question indicated that almost all of the comments were positive.

As can be seen from the above, all three groups tended to be more positive than negative toward the journal experience. With regard to the question in which there was a significant group difference (Question 19), Group 2 was significantly less eager than Group 1 to get the journals back each week, and both Groups 1 and 3 looked forward to getting the journals back each week (mean: Group 1 = 1.8, Group 2 = 3.0, Group 3 = 1.9).

Questions 11 through 20 on the Posttreatment Questionnaire were designed to determine (a) the degree of either positive or negative feelings the students had with regard to writing in their journals, and (b) whether they felt the experience had been a positive one. The results of a MANOVA indicated a significant difference among the three groups at $p = .0006$. Univariate F tests indicated one significant difference in Question 19 ("I looked forward to getting my journal back each week.") at $p = .0000$. Post hoc analyses showed that with regard to Question 19, Group 2 was significantly different from Group 1 at $p = .0004$. Group 1 had the lowest average, which showed that Group 1 had the most positive re-

sponse to Question 19, followed closely by Group 3, while Group 2 was more negative on this point than either Groups 1 or 3 (average: Group 1 = 2, Group 2 = 3, Group 3 = 2.2). Although these significant differences are of interest, perhaps more important for classroom teachers seeking ways to motivate their students is that it would appear, from Table 5, that all three groups "claimed" to be positively disposed to journal writing. In addition, all three groups reported that they felt it had a positive effect on their English, and that it had been a "good experience" for them.

Further Study

Much work remains to be carried out in the field of motivation. It is "one of the most elusive concepts in the whole domain of the social sciences" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 2). And yet few if any would deny the profound effect it has on learning. Journals, at least for the students involved in this study, seemed to have a positive effect on motivation. However, it is an undeniable fact that responding to journals takes time. This is one of the main drawbacks to journals mentioned in the literature. The question of time is one that definitely needs to be addressed. What is the relationship between motivation and frequency of journal entries? Is there an optimal frequency and if so, then what is it? In addition, is there some point at which frequency of journal entries crosses over to what Dörnyei (2001, p. 141) has called "the 'dark side' of motivation" (i.e., demotivation)?

A replication of this study at a Japanese boys' high school and at a Japanese coeducational high school, as well as similar institutions in different cultural settings would provide valuable data for comparing the effects of various types of feedback in different settings. Such studies would also lend themselves to an examination of possible gender and cultural differences. It is quite possible that journals are more effective with one gender or cultural group than another.

There is also a need to find out if there is a relationship between the students' levels of English or, possibly, time spent abroad in English-speaking environments, and their feelings towards journal writing. Perhaps as students become more proficient they may also become both more aware of and more concerned about their own errors and shortcomings, and therefore find the experience more intimidating (see for example Radecki & Swales, 1988; & Casanave, 1993b). Perhaps such students feel ready to move on to more structured (i.e., academic) types of writing. They may perceive this as more demanding, challenging and prestigious than journal writing. With the increasing number of returnees in Japan this would undoubtedly be a very interesting area of research.

Conclusion

The overall findings of this study reconfirm the positive effect journal writing has on motivation, regardless of feedback type. Journals, as many have noted (Reed, 1988; Jones, 1988; Baskin, 1994) provide opportunities to connect with students in a personal, non-threatening way, opening up their world to teachers in ways that would not otherwise be possible.

During the last few years the Japanese Ministry of Education (*Monbu-kagaku-sho*) has reduced the number of hours that students study English in class in junior and senior high school. Although writing and responding to journals takes time, this does not need to be class time. Journals therefore represent a valuable addition to class time, and provide students with a way to practice language production in a communicative context.

According to Ellis (1994), "Language teachers readily acknowledge the importance of learners' ***motivation*** . . . [and] SLA research also views motivation as a key factor in L2 learning" (p. 508). The overall findings of this study support the positive effect of journal writing on motivation, regardless of feedback type, and the slightly greater overall positive effect of meaning-focused feedback. All of the groups were positively motivated by the journal experience. If it is true that "What teachers usually wish to know is how they can ***intervene***, that is, what they can actually do to motivate learners" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 116), then the positive effects on motivation reported by the students in this study are well worth considering. "To be motivated to learn, students need both ample opportunities to learn and steady encouragement and support of their learning efforts" (Good & Brophy, 1994, p. 215). The use of journals provides just such opportunities.

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Appendix 1

Bilingual Pretreatment Questionnaire

Class ( ) No ( ) Name _____

Part 1: LANGUAGE HISTORY 言語歴

1. Have you ever been to an English-speaking country?
英語圏の国へ行ったことがありますか？

   No (go to #5) Yes (go to #2)

2. How long were you there? そこに滞在した期間は？

   a. less than a week (1週間以内)
   b. 1 to 2 weeks (1-2週間)
   c. 2 weeks to 3 months (2週間以上3ヶ月以内)
   d. 3 months to 1 year (3ヶ月以上1年未満)
   e. more than 1 year (1年以上)

3. How old were you at that time? 何歳くらいの時でしたか？

   a. 0-5 years old
   b. 6-10 years old
   c. 11-14 years old
   d. 15-18 years old

4. Did you study English while you were there?
その国では英語を習いましたか？

   Yes No

5. Do you study English outside of school?
学校以外でも英語を習っていますか？

   No (go to #8) Yes (go to #6)

6. Where do you study? どこで（誰に）習っていますか？

   a. Eikaiwa school 英会話学校
   b. private tutor, native English speaker
   個人教授（ネイティブの先生）
   c. private tutor, non-native English speaker
   個人教授（ノン・ネイティブの先生）
   d. other その他

7. How long have you studied in the place you circled in #6?
（上記6でこれまでどのくらいの期間習ってきましたか？）

a. less than a week （1週間以内）
b. 1 to 2 weeks （1-2週間以内）
c. 2 weeks to 3 months （2週間以上3ヶ月以内）
d. 3 months to 1 year （3ヶ月以上1年未満）
e. more than 1 year （1年以上）

8. Do you ever speak English with your family or friends?
（家族の人や友人と英語で話すことがありますか？）

a. Yes, several times a week （一週間に数回）
b. Yes, several times a month （一ヶ月に数回）
c. Yes, rarely （まれに）
d. No, never （英語ではなすことはない）

9. Do you have pen pals in foreign countries?
（外国に文通友達がいますか？）

Yes (go to #10) No

10. How often do you write to them?
（その友達に手紙を書くのは...）

a. at least once a week （少なくとも一週間に1回）
b. at least once a month （少なくとも一ヶ月に1回）
c. several times a year （一年に数回）
d. once a year （一年に1回）

Part 2: WRITING 英語を書くことに関して

1＝strongly agree （全くその通りだと思う）
2 = agree （まあまあその通りだと思う）
3 = neither agree nor disagree （どちらでもない）
4 = disagree （どちらかというとそう思わない）
5 = strongly disagree （全くそうは思わない）

11. ( ) I enjoyed writing in my journal.
楽しんでジャーナルが書けた

12. ( ) I think writing in my journal had a positive effect on my English.
ジャーナルを書いたことは自分の英語にプラスであった

13. ( ) I would like to continue writing in a journal next year.
来年度もジャーナル書きを続けたいと思う

14. ( ) I enjoy writing in English more now than I did a year ago.
一年前に比べて英語を楽しんで書けるようになった

15. ( ) I think my writing is better now than a year ago.
一年前に比べて自分の英語は進歩したと思う

16. ( ) I can express myself in writing more easily now than a year ago.
一年前に比べて自分の言いたいことがより簡単に表せるようになった

17. ( ) I think writing in my journal was a good experience for me.
ジャーナルを書いてきたことは自分にとっていい経験だったと思う

18. ( ) Writing in my journal has made me want to study English more.
ジャーナルをかくことによって英語の学習意欲がより強まった

19. ( ) I looked forward to getting my journal back each week.
毎週ジャーナルが返ってくるのが楽しみであった

20. ( ) Has writing a journal changed your attitude toward English?
ジャーナルを書くことによって英語に対する取り組みや考え方が変わりましたか

(この下に自由に英語で書いて下さい)

学習観がCALL教室における英語学習の成果に及ぼす影響：クラスター分析を用いた学習者プロファイリング

Learner Beliefs in Language Learning in the CALL Environment

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Students' beliefs about language learning and their relationship to learning achievement in a CALL environment were investigated. Unlike previous studies whose purpose was to describe learners' beliefs on each questionnaire item, this study aimed to deal with beliefs comprehensively.

Research on learner beliefs is gaining increasing attention. Behind this trend is the recognition that learners' behaviors cannot be changed unless their preconceptions are changed. Inspired by early studies such as Horwitz (1987), a number of researchers have conducted studies which would supposedly explain the relationship between beliefs and behaviors and, further, provide useful information for learner training. However, most of the studies to date do not take such approaches as to achieve the goals of the beliefs study. The approach of the analysis has been rather descriptive: distribution and frequencies of responses were simply shown. Even though some studies compared the beliefs of different populations, which indicated some significant differences, what we can get from such studies is, again, the description of the populations. To forward the beliefs study, we need to incorporate into the analysis both the beliefs and the behaviors (e.g., motivations, strategies, achievement).

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This study set out to investigate the intra-relationship between students' beliefs about language learning and their effects on learning achievements. Particular features of this study are; 1) profiling learners by simultaneously analyzing multiple questionnaire items for a comprehensive view of learners, and 2) analyzing the relationship between beliefs and learning achievements. Participants were 77 high school students who were taking EFL courses in a CALL environment. In the class, they mainly worked on a designated CD-ROM material individually. A questionnaire adapted from BALLI (Horwitz, 1987) was used to elicit the participants' beliefs. The items for the questionnaire were chosen by three EFL instructors as related to the learners' CALL experiences. The participants were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed or disagreed to the statement on the questionnaire on a five point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The analyses had two phases. The first analysis was carried out to profile the learners based on their responses to the questionnaire using cluster analysis (Ward method, squared Euclidean distance technique). This statistical technique is used for finding relatively homogeneous subgroups in the population. This analysis yielded four distinct clusters (numbered cluster 1 to 4), but cluster 4 was not included in the later analysis because it had only two participants in this cluster. The remaining three subgroups are differentially characterized by, in particular, different levels of confidence to learn English and attitudes toward individualized learning. Cluster 1 was a group of students who are less confident about their learning. Cluster 2 showed a high language anxiety and low confidence in learning, but it also showed a favor for individualized learning. Cluster 3 was found active in learning and was differentiated from the other two by the high level of confidence to learn English. Next, the three subgroups were compared on the learning achievements measured by the term-end examinations. One-way ANOVA indicated that there was a statistically significant difference among the three groups' achievements ($p = .04$). Post hoc multiple comparison was conducted with Tukey's Method. The results showed that there was a significant difference between cluster 1 and 3 ($p = .03$).

The above results indicate that the CALL environment may have a compensative effect on students whose characteristics are not necessarily advantageous for the traditional classroom learning environment. This implication was drawn particularly from the result for cluster 2, which is a group of learners whose high anxiety and low confidence to learn English do not seem to favor them. Their characteristics are similar to those of cluster 1, but the achievements of cluster 2 was not as low as cluster 1 despite their disadvantageous characteristics. This indicates that their CALL experiences, which provide a lot of opportunities for working individually, compensated for their disadvantages which would have inhibited them in a traditional classroom setting.

本研究では、学習観がCALL教室における英語学習の成果に及ぼす影響を、クラスター分析を用いた学習者プロファイリングによって検討した。BALLIの中から、特にCALL学習に関係が深いものを13項目選び、学習者をカテゴライズした。その結果、(1)全体的に英語学習に対して消極的な生徒、(2)言語不安が高く英語学習に対する自信が低いが、対人関係のない個別学習に向く生徒、(3)全体的に英語学習に対して積極的な生徒、の3つのタイプの学習者に分けられた。これら3つの学習者のタイプと学習成果との関連を分析した結果、CALL教室における英語学習は、従来型の英語の授業では高い学習成果を期待することが難しい、言語不安が高く英語学習に対する自信が低い、対人関係のない個別学習に向いている生徒に対して補償的に働くことが示唆された。

ITの進歩に伴い、多くの現場で、テクノロジーを応用した教育が行われるようになり、機器の利用という観点から多くの研究と実践がなされている。しかし、この動きは、「はじめに機器ありき」の風潮があり、学習者要因について注意が十分に払われているとは言えないのが現状である。Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt (1996)が指摘しているように、特にテクノロジーを利用した教育環境のデザインにおいては、教育工学、教育問題及び内容、そして学習にまつわる諸理論の3つを考慮する必要がある。

そこで、本研究では、数多くある学習者要因のうちの一つである学習観（learner beliefs：市川, 1993）が、CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) 教室での教育実践の学習成果にどのように影響するのかを検討する。

外国語教育の実践や研究が学習者中心の方向へ向かうにつれ、学習というものの捉え方が、単に知識を受け取る受動的な教育・学習観から、知識は学習者が構築するものという能動的な教育・学習観に変遷した(Little, 1991; Williams & Burden, 1997)。その流れの中で、能動的に学習をコントロールする過程に影響する要因の研究（例えば動機づけ、学習方略）が盛んになっている。

学習観もその要因のひとつとして研究されているものである。学習観が研究対象となった理由は、以下のような考えがある。学習者がとる行動の背景には学習者自身が持つ学習観があり、彼らはそれを基に行動を選択していると考えられている(Holec, 1987)。そのため、学習者の行動が望ましくないと判断される時などに教師が介入をする場合があるが、行動を変えるにはその基にある学習観が変わらなければならないという観点から、教授学習過程において学習観が重要であると認識されている(Victori & Lockhart, 1995)。外国語教育以外の分野でも学習観の重要性が認められ、教育的介入を行って学習観とそれに伴う学習行動を変容させる試みがなされている（市川, 1993）。

学習観の影響は様々な場面で見られるが、特に学習者自身がコントロールできる割合の多い場面で影響が強いと思われる。そのなかで、CALL教室での授業は普通教室での授業と異なり、個人で行う学習の割合が多いので、学習観に左右される割合も多いと考えられる。例えばCD-ROM教材を使って学習する場合、行うタスクは皆同じであるが、「何のために」「言語のどこに注目し」「どのように行うのか」といった指示が詳細になされている教材はほとんど無く、学習者は自らがそれらを判断しなければならない。このような状況下では、その学習のコントロールは学習観に影響を受ける可能性が高いと考えられる。仮に同じ教材を使って学習していたとしても、学習者によっては言語の異なる面に注目したり、学習の方法も人によって異なることが予想される。

外国語教育研究において学習観の研究が盛んになったのは、1980年代後半からであるが、その契機となった研究のひとつがHorwitz (1987)である。この研究によって学習観研究が広まった理由は、BALLI (The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) が作成された点にある。これ以降、BALLIが学習観を引き出す道具として数多くの研究で使用されている（Horwitz, 1988; Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Kern, 1995）。それらの研究の報告によると、学習者は全てが同じ学習観を持っているのではなく、人それぞれに異なっていると言われている。

ただし、それらのBALLIを使った研究（Horwitz, 1988; Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Kern, 1995等）が、学習観研究の本来の目的を達しているとは言い難い。その理由は2点ある。第1に、研究のアプローチがあくまで記述的なところでとどまっていることである。分析が被験者全体の傾向を記述統計（主にパーセンテージ）を用いて表しているにすぎず、学習行動や学習成果との関連が検討されていない。第2に、質問項目ごとの検討にとどまっており、項目の組み合わせによる学習者のプロファイリングとして研究がなされていないため、個人の傾向が見えてこないことである。本来、学習観というものは、学習者一人に対して一つだけ割り当てられているものではない。学習者は、学習に対して様々な考えを持っており、この組み合わせが学習行動や学習成果に対して影響を与えると考えるのが自然である。

BALLIはもともと授業で学習者の学習観を引き出すための道具であって、研究のための尺度ではないため、全ての項目が授業過程に関係しているとは言えない。従って、BALLIを使って学習成果等との関連を調べる場合、項目の選定が必要であると考えられる。

そこで本研究では、BALLIの項目の中で特にCALLに関係があると考えられるものを選定し、その上で選定された項目全てへの反応の傾向に応じて学習者のプロファイリングを行い、学習成果に差があるかどうか検討した。

方法

対象者ならびに授業形態

対象者は東京都内の私立高等学校の1年生77名で、全て男子である。授業は1時限50分で、20～25分を市販のCD-ROMソフトウェアを用いて学習し、15分程度既成のソフトウェアでタイピングを練習し、残りは、ホームページ上で公開されている単語テストや文法テストで学習するという形式だった。CD-ROMソフトウェアはCALL教室用のもので、リスニングスキルを伸ばすと同時に語彙・文法の定着を意図した、New Dynamic English (DynEd International, 2000)であった。

質問紙

BALLI（Horwitz, 1987）の中から、CALL教室での学習と関係が深いと考えられる項目を、東京都内の公立および私立の中学校・高等学校に勤務する英語教師3名で協議の上、選定した。その結果、表1に示した項目を利用することを決定した。

表1: 本研究で用いたBALLIの項目

No. 1	私は自分が英語を上手に話せるようになると信じている
No. 2	きれいな発音で英語を話すことが大切である
No. 3	英語を話すためには英語を話す国の文化について知ることが必要だ
No. 4	外国語を学習するのに最も大切なことは単語を学習することである
No. 5	何度も繰り返し練習することが大切である
No. 6	日本人は英語を話すのが大切だと感じている
No. 7	他の人と英語で話す際びくびくしてしまう
No. 8	外国語を学習するのに最も大切なことは文法を学習することである
No. 9	カセットテープ等を用いて練習することが大切である
No. 10	英語を学習するのに最も大切なことは日本語からの訳し方を学習することである
No. 11	英語を上手に学習すればよい仕事につく機会が増える
No. 12	私は英語を上手に話せるようになりたい
No. 13	英語を話したり聞いたりするよりも読んだり書いたりする方が容易である

学習成果の指標

New Dynamic Englishに付属のMastery Test（Level 2, Disk 1）を2月に実施し、その結果を利用した。テスト問題の構成は、リスニングをしながら文字や絵を選んで解答する選択問題、単語を並べかえて正しい文を完成させる語句整序問題等であり、全てマウス操作で解答する形式であった。内容は、2学期後半から3学期の平常授業で練習してきたDaily Activities, Our World, Locationsに関してのものであり、それぞれ100点満点であった。本研究においては、この3つのテストの合計点を学習成果の指標として用いた。従って、得点の範囲は0点から300点であった。

結果

平均及び標準偏差

まず、本研究で用いたBALLIの各項目の平均及び標準偏差は表2の通りであった。また、学習成果の平均及び標準偏差は、M=229.60、SD=32.54であった。

表2　本研究で用いたBALLIの各項目の平均および標準偏差

	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#8	#9	#10	#11	#12	#13
M	2.95	1.74	2.84	2.58	1.38	1.88	2.77	3.09	3.14	3.34	1.60	1.55	2.74
SD	1.11	0.99	1.36	1.21	0.84	0.99	1.15	1.18	1.20	1.13	0.85	0.85	1.27

クラスター分析の結果

SPSSによる、平方ユークリッド距離を用いたウォード法によりクラスター分析を行い、対象者をいくつかのタイプに分けた。ウォード法を用いた理由は、この方法によるクラスター分析は、比較的まとまったクラスターが得られやすく、パターンの分類に有用であると考えられたためである。この結果得られたクラスターツリーは、Appendixを参照されたい。

実際のグループ分けにおいては、ノンパラメトリック検定の結果を検討し、最もグループの特徴を記述できるプロフィールの得られる点を探索した上で、カッティングポイントを定めた。その結果、4つのクラスターが得られた。各クラスターの所属人数は、第1クラスターが22人、第2クラスターが35人、第3クラスターが18人であった。しかし、第4クラスターについては2名のみの所属であったので、以後の分析に第4クラスターの生徒についてのデータは利用しない。

次に、クラスター分析の結果の妥当性を検討した。クラスター分析において投入した、13の学習観についての得点が、各クラスター間で差がある

かどうかを、ノンパラメトリック検定（クラスカルーウォリス検定）の結果により確認した。通常このような得点の比較には、分散分析が用いられる。しかし、BALLIの回答などにみられるような順序カテゴリカルデータに対しては、ノンパラメトリック検定を用いることが推奨されている（石田、1990）。従って本研究ではノンパラメトリック検定を用いた。一方、学習成果については一元配置の分散分析を使用した。

その結果、No.1「私は自分が英語を上手に話せるようになると信じている」（χ^2 (2, 77)=14.51、p=.001）、No.3「英語を話すためには英語を話す国の文化について知ることが必要だ」（χ^2 (2, 77)=26.03、p=.000）、No.4「外国語を学習するのに最も大切なことは単語を学習することである」（χ^2 (2, 77)=17.38、p=.000）、No.7「他の人と英語で話す際びくびくしてしまう」（χ^2 (2, 77)=7.41、p=.025）、No.8「外国語を学習するのに最も大切なことは文法を学習することである」（χ^2 (2, 77)=8.62、p=.013）、No.9「カセットテープ等を用いて練習することが大切である」（χ^2 (2, 77)=7.73、p=.021）、No.13「英語を話したり聞いたりするよりも読んだり書いたりする方が容易である」（χ^2 (2, 77)=26.55、p=.000）、以上の7項目について、クラスター間で有意な差が確認された。また、多重比較の結果および各クラスターの平均及び標準偏差は表3の通りであった。従って、このクラスター分析の結果は妥当であると考えられた。

表3: 各クラスターのBALLIの得点の平均，
標準偏差ならびにノンパラメトリック検定の結果

		No.1	No.2	No.3	No.4	No.5	No.6	No.7	No.8	No.9	No.10	No.11	No.12	No.13
第1クラスター	M	2.77	4.09	2.18	2.59	4.64	3.82	3.05	3.18	2.50	2.68	4.23	4.50	2.82
(n=22)	SD	1.11	1.06	1.01	1.05	0.73	1.01	1.17	0.96	0.86	1.09	0.69	0.80	1.14
第2クラスター	M	2.86	4.31	3.31	3.89	4.66	4.37	3.66	3.09	3.29	2.80	4.60	4.49	3.97
(n=35)	SD	0.77	0.76	1.23	0.96	0.64	0.69	0.80	1.12	1.13	1.13	0.55	0.70	0.79
第3クラスター	M	4.00	4.72	4.28	3.56	4.50	4.22	2.78	2.22	2.67	2.50	4.61	4.61	2.22
(n=18)	SD	1.08	0.57	0.89	1.20	1.29	1.11	1.40	1.22	1.41	1.20	0.70	0.78	1.26
多重比較の結果 (ボンフェローニの修正後p<.05で有意差のあったもの)		第1<第3 第2<第3		第1<第2 第1<第3 第2<第3	第1<第2 第1<第3			第2<第3	第1<第3 第2<第3	第1<第2				第1<第2 第1<第3

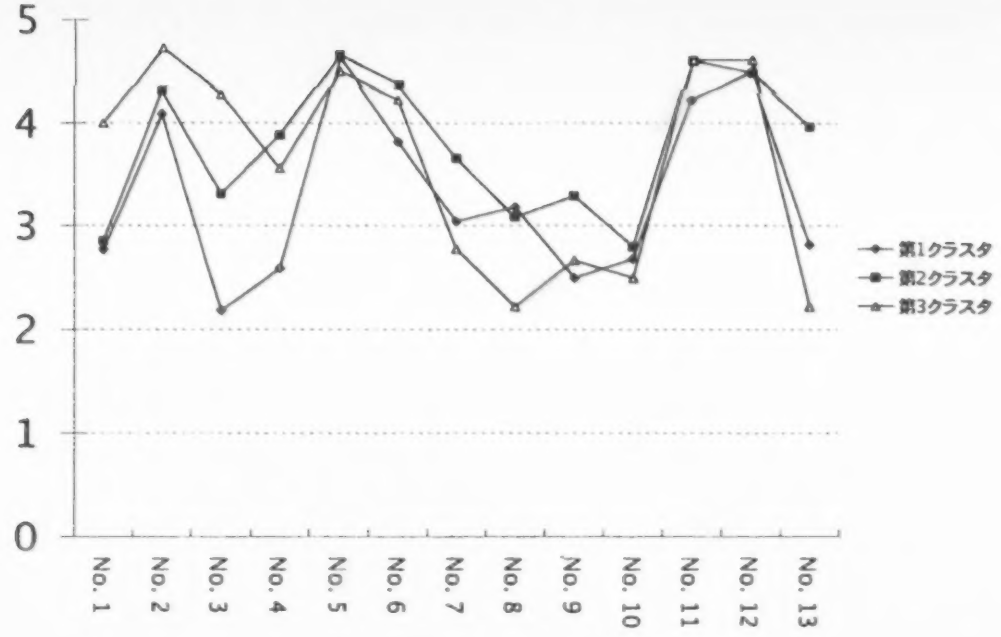

図1: 学習者プロフィール

このクラスター分析の結果、得られた3つのクラスターの特徴をプロフィールにしたものが図1である。この結果をまとめると、次のようになる。

第1クラスターの生徒は、「自分が英語を上手に話せるようになると信じている」傾向が強くなく、「英語を話すためには英語を話す国の文化について知ることが必要だ」とあまり感じず、同時に「外国語を学習する際単語を学習することが大切だ」とも感じていない。一方で、「文法を学習することが大切だ」とは普通に感じている。従って、全体的に英語学習に対して消極的な学習観を有している生徒と言える。

第2クラスターの生徒は、「自分が英語を上手に話せるようになると信じている」傾向が強くなく、「英語を話したり聞いたりするよりも読んだり書いたりする方が容易である」と感じていて、「他の人と英語で話す際びくびくしてしまう」と同時に「カセットテープ等を用いて練習することが大切だ」と感じている。従って、全体的に消極的で口頭練習に対する不安が高いが、対人関係のない個別学習に向く生徒と言える。

第3クラスターの生徒は、「自分が英語を上手に話せるようになると信じている」傾向が高く、「英語を話すためには英語を話す国の文化について知ることが必要だ」と感じている一方で、「外国語学習において文法を学習することが大切だ」とは感じず、「英語を読んだり書いたりするより話したり聞いたりする方が容易だ」と感じている。従って、全

体的に英語学習に対して、コミュニケーションを通じて積極的に取り組む姿勢を持った生徒と言える。

また、学習成果の結果の各クラスター間における差を一元配置の分散分析によって検討した。その結果、F (2, 74)=3.31、 p=.042であり、クラスター間で学習成果に有意差 (p<.05) があることが確認された。さらに、Tukeyの方法を用いた多重比較を行った結果、第1クラスターと第3クラスターとの間で、学習成果に有意差(p=.03)があることが確認された。つまり、第1クラスターの生徒は、第3クラスターの生徒に比べて、学習成果が有意に低いことが示唆された。

表4: 各クラスターの学習成果についての平均と標準偏差

	第１クラスター	第２クラスター	第３クラスター
M	219.55	230.23	244.89
SD	30.83	31.88	29.44

考察

本研究が、学習観と外国語学習との関係を扱った他の研究と一線を画すのは、次の2点である。第1は、従来の研究に見られるように、学習観の善し悪しを論じるのではなく、項目の組み合わせによる学習者のプロファイリングを行い、包括的な学習者像を捉えようとした点である。第2は、学習者のタイプの違いと学習成果との関係を論じた点である。

本研究の結果得られたクラスターのうち、最も学習成果が高かった群は、第3クラスターに属する生徒であった。このクラスターに属する生徒は、英語学習に対する自信が高く、コミュニケーションを通じて積極的に英語学習に取り組む姿勢を持った、外国語学習に対して促進的に働くと考えられる学習観を有している生徒であると言えよう。このような生徒の場合、CALL教室においての英語学習のみならず、普通教室における従来型の英語学習においても、同様に良い学習成果を修める生徒であると考えられる。従って、このような語学学習に対して促進的に働くと考えられる学習観を持ち合わせていることが、CALL教室における学習に対してのみ促進的な効果をもたらすというわけではないと言えよう。

一方、最も学習成果が低かった群は第1クラスターに属する生徒であった。このクラスターに属する生徒は、英語学習に対する自信が低く、全体的に英語学習に対して消極的な学習観を有していると考えられる生徒であった。このような生徒は、CALL教室での学習に限らず、英語学習全般においても、高い学習成果を期待することは難しいと言えよう。

ここで最も問題としたいのは、第2クラスターに属する生徒である。

このクラスターに属する生徒は、第1クラスターの生徒と同様に英語学習に対する自信が低く、さらに「他の人と英語で話す際びくびくしてしまう」という項目の点が高いことから、言語学習不安が高い生徒であると言える。しかし本研究において、第2クラスターの生徒の学習成果は統計的有意差は認められなかったものの、素点を検討した結果、第1クラスターの生徒ほど低くはなかった。

Horwitz (1986), Young (1986), MacIntyre and Gardner (1994)など、多くの研究において、言語学習不安と学習成果との間には有意な負の相関があるという結果が得られている。さらに、Salili, Chiu and Lai (2001) が指摘しているように、英語学習に対する自信と学習成果との間には、有意な正の相関があると考えられてきた。従って、英語学習に対する自信が低いこともまた、低い学習成果につながると考えられる。これらの先行研究に従って考えると、第2クラスターの生徒の学習成果が第1クラスターの生徒と同様に低くなると予測できる。しかし実際は、第2クラスターの生徒の学習成果は、第1クラスターの生徒ほど、低くはなかった。

第2クラスターの生徒も、第1クラスターの生徒と同様に一般的には高い学習成果を期待することは出来ないように考えられる。だが、このクラスターの生徒は、No. 9「カセットテープ等を用いて練習することが大切である」において第1クラスターの生徒との間に有意差が認められたことから、対人関係のない個別学習を好む生徒であったと考えられる。CALL教室における学習は、従来型の教室で行われる英語の授業とは異なり、周りの生徒や教師のことを意識することなく、個人のペースで学習を進められることが特徴である。従って、対人関係のない個別学習を好む学習観を持っていることが促進的に働いた結果、言語学習不安が軽減され、第1クラスターの生徒のような低い学習成果にはつながらなかったと考えられる。

以上の点から、CALL教室における学習は、従来型の英語の授業では高い学習成果を期待することが難しいが、個人で学習を進めることに対しては肯定的な学習観を持つ生徒に対して、補償的に働く可能性のあることが示唆された。

このことは、必ずしもCALL教室での授業が他の形態の授業に比べて望ましいという結果にはつながらない。山森・前田・磯田 (2002)が指摘しているように、適性処遇交互作用のパラダイムを援用すると、一つの授業形態に向く生徒がいるということは、それ以外の形態での授業に向く生徒が存在する可能性をも示唆していると言えよう。CALL教室での授業に向く生徒がいると言うことが確認されたことは、一方で、従来型もしくはそれ以外の形態での授業に対して向く生徒が存在する可能性も否定できないのである。Sternberg (1996) は、一つの教室に存在する多様な個性に対応するためには、一つのクラスにおいて、様々な教授法を切り替えて授業を行う必要があることを、認知心理学の研究成果をもとに

指摘している。またSawyer and Ranta (2001) は、多様な個性の持ち主である学習者に対してどのような学習法が有効であるかの検討を個人差研究は可能にするとし、言語教育学の新地平を切り開く可能性があると指摘している。つまり、CALL教室での授業も含めた多様な形態での学習機会を提供することが、我々英語教師に課せられていると言えよう。

結論

本研究では、学習観とCALL教室における英語学習の成果との関係を、クラスター分析を用いた学習者プロファイリングによって検討した。BALLIの中から、特にCALL学習に関係が深いと考えられるものを13項目選定し、学習者をカテゴライズした。その結果、(1)全体的に英語学習に対して消極的な生徒、(2)言語学習不安が高く英語学習に対する自信が低いが、対人関係のない個別学習に向く生徒、(3)全体的に英語学習に対して積極的な生徒、以上3つのタイプの学習者に分けられた。これら3つの学習者のタイプと学習成果との関連を検討した結果、言語学習不安が高く、英語学習に対する自信が低く、かつ対人関係のない個別学習に向くという、従来型の英語の授業では高い学習成果を期待することが難しい生徒に対して、CALL教室における英語学習は補償的に働くことが示唆された。

この結果を解釈する上で注意すべき点は、CALL教室での授業が従来型の授業に比べて優れているという結果にはならない点である。適性処遇交互作用のパラダイムに基づいて考えると、CALL教室での授業を好む生徒が存在するということは、それ以外の形態での授業を好む生徒が同時に存在する可能性があるということである。従って、教師は、生徒の多様性に応じて多様な学習環境を提供する必要性を忘れてはならない。

最後に、CALL教室における授業以外の多様な授業形態に対しても、本研究と同様の方法によって検討を行うことにより、学習者の特性を考慮した教育環境のデザインを可能とすると考えられる。

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日本人大学生の外国語学習スタイルとKolbの Experiential Learning Theory

Foreign Language Learning Style of Japanese University Students and Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory

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This study examined whether David A. Kolb's (1984) Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) can be applied to Japanese. ELT has received particular attention in describing individual learning processes in English speaking countries where Learning Style Study is prosperous. ELT postulates two orthogonal bipolar dimensions of cognitive development: the active-reflective dimension and the abstract-concrete dimension. Kolb uses these polar extremes to define a four-stage cycle of learning. It begins with the acquisition of concrete experience (CE). This gives way to reflective observation (RO) on that experience. Next to that, theory building or abstract conceptualization (AC) occurs. The theory is then put to the test through active experimentation (AE). The cycle thus re-commences since the experimentation itself yields new concrete experience.

There are two questionnaires based on Kolb's theory in wide use The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) and Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ). LSI is one of the most popular questionnaires in English speaking countries; however, some researchers have called into question its reliability and validity. LSQ was developed after considering LSI's problems, but its reliability and validity also have not been examined sufficiently.

The author translated LSI and LSQ into Japanese to apply them in a pilot study. Some problems ware reported, such as the method of answering LSI, the ambiguity of LSQ, and factors that are difficult to understand for English non-native speakers. The author accordingly developed a

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new questionnaire that was based on ELT but revised for Japanese. The questionnaire consisted of a set of 12 randomly arranged items on each of the four learning stages to be measured. The Likert-scaled 48 items ranged from Strongly Agree (6) to Strongly Disagree (0). The questionnaire was distributed at two national universities and 218 students completed it.

The principal component analysis was carried out and promax rotation was used. Contrary to Kolb's theory, which has two bipolar axes and four poles of learning, in this study five factors were found: Deliberative, Logical, Pragmatic, Challenge and Systematic. The Deliberative style means that when a learner has this ability, he or she makes decisions after deliberation and progresses step-by-step. The Logical style represents a learner who attaches importance to logic and correctness. The Pragmatic style stands for a learner who always thinks about using language in the real world. The Challenge style means a learner who is flexible to new things and solves problems actively. The Systematic style describes a learner who finds rules from a lot of information and learns systematically. The result of Cronbach's alpha analysis indicated that all the five factors have a high degree of internal reliability from .77 to .65 and possess some degree of correlations from -.07 to .51. The result means that there are not two bipolar axes as Kolb supposed, but five factors that are independent with only factor one and two having a correlation with each other.

Because the five factors are independent and have a high degree of internal reliability, Japanese university students have foreign language learning styles that are different from Kolb's theory. Although the theory has received much attention and LSI and LSQ are widely used in English speaking countries, they cannot be applied directly to Japanese university students. Thus it is concluded that a new theory and questionnaire are needed in order to grasp the foreign language learning style of Japanese.

本稿ではまず、欧米で広く認められているKolb (1984)のExperiential Learning Theoryとそれに基づいて作成された２つの調査票The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) とLearning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ) の概略と問題点についてまとめた。次にその問題点を踏まえて筆者がKolbの理論に基づいて新たに外国語学習スタイル調査票を作成し、日本人大学生を対象に調査を行った。その結果、Kolbが想定した２つの軸や４つの学習能力を示す因子は抽出されず、「熟考」、「論理」、「実用」、「挑戦」、「秩序」の５因子が抽出された。この5因子はそれぞれ独立しており内的一貫性も認められるため、日本人大学生にはKolbの理論とは異なる外国語学習スタイルが存在する可能性が高い。このことはLSIやLSQを日本人大学生に使用し、結果をKolbの理論にそのまま当てはめて解釈するのは問題があることを示している。

学習者の学び方は様々である。それを考慮して授業を運営すれば学習者の学習効率を高めることが可能なのではないだろうか。このような考えのもとで行われているのが学習スタイル研究である。しかし学習スタイルの意味や内容は研究者によって異なっている。

また学習スタイルを把握するための尺度には様々なものがあり、適切なものを選択するのは難しい。さらに外国語学習に焦点をしぼった尺度が少なく、学習スタイルを測る尺度で外国語学習スタイルも測れるかどうかも検証されていない。その上日本とは異なる文化圏で作成された尺度を日本で使用するためには、その尺度が日本でも適用可能かどうかを検証しなければならない。

本稿では、欧米で広く知られているKolb(1984)の学習理論(Experiential Learning Theory、以下ELT)に基づいて作成されている学習スタイル調査票について検討し、ELTをもとに筆者が新たに作成した調査票を用いて行った調査の結果について述べる。

学習スタイル

学習スタイルに似た概念に認知スタイルがある。認知／学習スタイル研究はもともと個人差への興味から発達してきた。研究者によって言葉の使い方が異なっており、明確には区別されていないが、Riding and Cheema（1991）は、言葉としてはAllport（1937）が用いた認知スタイルの方が古く、認知スタイルよりも一般的な用語として、または認知スタイルに取って代わる用語として、1970年代に現れたのが学習スタイルだと述べている。また同書は、学習スタイルの方がより実用的で教育的であり、認知スタイルの方がより理論的で学術的であるとしている。さらに、認知スタイルは場依存型と場独立型のように2極化していて相反するものであるのに対し、学習スタイルは様々な要素を含み、多くの場合2極化するものではないため、あるスタイルの存在によって他のスタイルの存在が否定されるわけではないとも述べている。学習スタイルの定義としては、「性格に起因する内的なもので、学習者に認識されたり意識的に使われたりすることはほとんどないが、新しい情報の取り込みと理解に用いられるもの」(Reid, 1998: ix)、「すべての状況における知覚、記憶、思考、判断の個人的一貫性」(Curry, 2000: 239)などがある。

Kolbの学習理論

Kolb(1984)のELT（図１）は多くの心理学者によって支持されている認知的発達の２つの軸を直角に組み合わせたものである。２つの軸とは行動－内省の軸（横軸）と具体－抽象の軸（縦軸）である。行動－内省の軸は実際に参加するか観察するかを表し、具体－抽象の軸は実在するものを好むか理論的概念を好むかを表している。

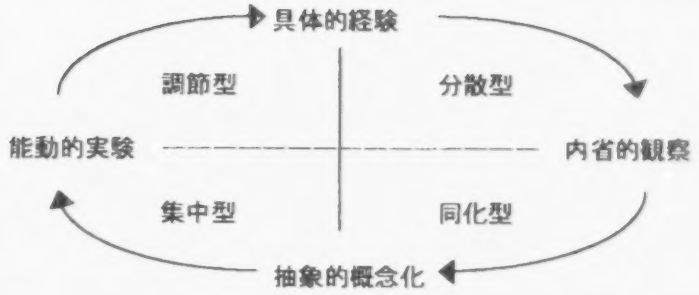

図 1: KolbのExperiential Learning Theory と学習スタイル

Kolbは2本の軸の両端にある４つの極を「学習能力」とし、４つの象限が「学習スタイル」に当たるとしている。４つの学習能力は、Kolbによれば学習の４つの段階を表すもので、まず初めに具体的に経験し(Concrete Experience: CE)、経験を内省して観察し(Reflective Observation: RO)、そして理論や抽象的概念の構築をし(Abstract Conceptualization: AC)、最後に実験を通して理論を試すものである(Active Experimentation: AE)。そして実験は具体的経験をもたらすため、サイクルはまた繰り返されるという。

２本の軸によって分けられる４つの象限が示す学習スタイルは、上のサイクルに沿って「分散型（Diverger）」「同化型（Assimilator）」「集中型（Converger）」「調節型（Accommodator）」の４つである。「分散型」は特定の経験について多くの異なる見方から考え、「同化型」は内省から理論的枠組みを組み立てる。「集中型」は理論を実際に試してみて、「調節型」は理論を試した結果を新しい経験に適用して学習を進めていく。サイクルの各段階では異なる能力が求められるが、人は普通いくつかの能力が他の能力より優れているので、特定の学習スタイルを好むことが多い。

Experiential Learning Theoryに基づく調査票

Experiential Learning Theoryに基づいて作成された学習スタイル調査票は２つある。その概略と問題点をまとめてみる。

The Learning Style Inventory (LSI)

まず１つはKolbによって作成されたThe Learning Style Inventory（LSI）である。LSIは1976年に初版が作られ、1985年にVersion 2が、1999年にはVersion 3が作成されている（Kolb, 1999）。学習スタイルの測定法を用いた研究を概観したCurry（2000）によれば、現在最も用いられてい

る測定法の1つである。

LSIでは、回答者は調査票に書かれている学習場面についての12の文を完成することを求められる。具体的にはまず文の前半を読み、後に続く４つの言葉を見て自分の学習傾向に当てはまる順に１から４の順番をつけるという形をとる。

例：わたしは学習するとき
感覚的に学ぶ＿2＿　見て学ぶ＿4＿　考えて学ぶ＿1＿　やってみて学ぶ＿3＿

後半の言葉は４つの学習能力（CE、RO、AC、AE）に対応する4つの言葉であり、12の文をすべて完成したら回答を集計する。そして点数の高い２つの学習能力の間にあたる象限がその人の学習スタイルとされる。さらに４つの学習能力の点数を用いて行動―内省の強さと抽象―具体の強さを計算する。このようにして個人の好む学習スタイルを特定するのである。

LSIの妥当性・信頼性については疑問を投げかける研究者もいる。Loo（1996）は因子分析を行って２つの因子を見出したが、その２つの因子では全体の32.1%しか説明できなかった。さらに４つの学習能力と対応させるため４つの因子で分析した結果、ROとCEの項目で第1因子、AEの項目で第2因子、ACとCEの項目で第3因子、第4因子が構成されており、４つの学習能力は明確には現れなかった。同様の他の研究（Willcoxson & Prosser, 1996; Willson, 1986）でもはっきりとした結果が出なかった。また、強制的に順位をつけさせた回答をもとに因子分析を行うという方法自体を疑問視する研究者もいる。LSIでは回答者に強制的に１から４の順位をつけさせるので、質問項目への回答の合計が10（1+2+3+4）になる。これを因子分析で分析すると人工的に両極化された因子構造が出て、両極化した因子が予測されない場合でも両極化した因子が生み出されてしまうというのである（Cornwell & Dunlap, 1994; Loo, 1999）。

Learning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ)

LSIの問題点を踏まえ、HoneyとMumfordによって作成されたのがLearning Styles Questionnaire (LSQ)である(Honey & Mumford, 1995)。LSIは抽象的な言葉を用いているのに対し、LSQは職場や学校などの実際の活動場面を表した質問項目を備えている。またLSQは行動を決める心理学的な部分ではなく、観察できる行動そのものに焦点を当てている（図２）。

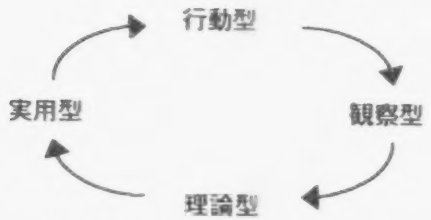

図2: Honey & Mumford のLearning Styles Questionnaireの学習サイクル

LSQは80の質問項目について回答者が賛成か反対かをチェックする形式である。80の質問項目は特定の学習スタイルを測る各20項目の4つのグループから成っており、ランダムに配置されている。4つのスタイルはKolbの4つの学習能力にほぼ一致している。「行動型（Activist）」は柔軟性に富み、新しい経験をしながら学んでいき、「観察型（Reflector）」は物事を様々な視点から観察したりデータを集めたり分析したりして学ぶ。「理論型（Theorist）」は観察を概念的な枠に統合していくことから学び、合理性や論理を重視する。「実践型（Pragmatist）」は概念や理論や技術が実際にうまく使えるかどうかを試して学び、決定や問題解決を行う。

LSQはKolbのLSIよりも信頼性、妥当性が高い(Sadler-Smith, 2000)。最近ではLSQの方がLSIよりも多く用いられている（Loo, 1999)。しかし、LSQの調査票としての妥当性・信頼性を分析した研究（Allinson & Hayes, 1988）では、因子分析を行った結果、本来LSQで想定されているような因子は抽出できず、予測的妥当性（predictive validity）についても問題が残る結果となった。

問題と目的

以上のようなことを踏まえた上で筆者はLSIとLSQを日本語に翻訳し、イギリス留学経験のある日本人大学院生1名のチェックを受け、調査票作成についての講義を受けた日本人大学院生7名に予備調査を行い、面接法で感想を求めた。その結果上記の問題以外の問題点が見出された。

まず、LSIでは強制的に順位をつけるという問題点である。回答者によっては、1位と2位はつけられても3位と4位はつけにくいとか、1位と2位の間は近く感じても3位と4位の間は遠いように感じて1位から4位までの順位がつけにくいという場合がある。

一方、LSQでは質問の意味があいまいだという問題点がある。質問に回答する際、学習の場面のみについて答えるのか、それ以外の生活場面のことも含めるのかが明記されていないため、回答があいまいになる項目が多くなる。また、たとえ学習に限定したとしても、数学の場合と外国語の場合ではアプローチが異なると感じられ、回答に揺れが出る。そ

の上、質問項目に書いてあるようにしたいが実際にはできないというように、好みと実際の行動が異なる場合どう答えるべきか迷う。

さらに、LSIでもLSQでも問題となったのは項目の解釈の問題である。「When I learn I feel personally involved in things.」など、英語母語話者でなければ感覚が把握しにくい項目があり、翻訳ではその感覚が分かりにくかった。このような問題についてEliason（1995）は、英語を母語とする人に対する調査では信頼性と妥当性があったとしても、そうではない人に対しては信頼性と妥当性があるとは限らないと指摘している。

以上のようにLSI、LSQは信頼性・妥当性が保証されているとは言えない。また、日本とは異なる文化圏で作成された調査票なので、そのまま翻訳して日本で用いるのは問題がある可能性がある。本研究では、日本人に対する外国語学習スタイル調査票をELTに基づいて新たに作成して調査を行い、ELTが日本人にも当てはまるか否かを検証する。

方法

予備調査の結果より、LSIやLSQをそのまま翻訳して調査を行うのは問題があると考えられたため、新しい調査票は以下のように作成した。回答形式は、LSIのような強制順位付けという形式ではなく、「0＝全く当てはまらない」から「6＝非常によく当てはまる」の7段階評定で回答する形式にした。質問項目は、LSIをそのまま翻訳すると解釈に問題が生じる場合があるため、LSIの48項目[1]をもとにしながらも、学習全般ではなく外国語学習に限り、好みではなく行動に焦点を当て、Kolb(1984)のELTの4つの軸の特徴（表1）と考え合わせて作成した[2]。その際、LSQの質問項目も参考にした。このようにして作成した48項目をランダムに並べ、調査票を完成させた。

調査票は2001年2月から5月にかけて日本国内の２つの国立大学で学ぶ大学生に配布した。220名（男性146名、女性74名）から回答を得たが、そのうち2名には欠損値があったため218名分を分析に用いた。

表1： KolbのExperiential Learning Theory（ELT）の４つの軸の特徴

具体的経験	内省的観察
具体的な経験から学ぶ	行動よりも内省を重視する
すぐに新しいことに挑戦する	多くの情報を集めて熟考する
物事を直感的に判断する	１つの問題を多くの視点から考える
理論や一般性よりも事実を重視する	多くのアイデアを生み出す
思考よりも感覚を大切にする	想像力が豊かである
まず行動し、結果は後から考える	注意深く観察し、状況の意味を理解する
能動的実験	**抽象的概念化**
実用性を重視する	普遍的な論理の構築を大切にする
理論が実際に使えるかどうかを試す	論理的に正しいことを重視する
新しいアイデアを実験し応用する	物事を分析することを好む
課題達成を優先する	感覚よりも思考を大切にする
1つの正しい答えやよりよい方法を求める	体系的なものを好む
決断が早く、自信をもって行動する	客観的で確実なものを好む

分析

Kolb(1984)もHoney and Momford(1995)も直交し両極化した2本の軸を想定していた。本研究でもこれらの研究を踏襲し、まず2因子解・バリマックス回転で因子分析を行う。ELTが正しければ2つの因子のそれぞれに正と負の負荷がかかるような構造が見出されるはずである。そうなれば、このような軸が日本人大学生にも存在すると考えられる。

データの解析には、統計パッケージSPSS for Windows（9.0）を用いた。全48項目の記述統計が表2である。なお、表２にある歪度と尖度はともに正規分布からどの程度外れているかを表すものであるが、SPSSでは0を基準としているので絶対値が0に近いほど正規性が高い。本研究ではすべての項目が正規分布から大きく外れるものではないと判断された。しかし、その後に行う因子分析の性質上、相関係数が低いものは分析を行う際に項目として不適当であるため、相関係数ｒの絶対値の最大値を求め（表2）、これが.35を下回る項目を削除し、31項目を分析の対象とした。

表2: ELTに基づく調査票全48項目の記述統計 (N=218)

項目	平均値	SD	歪度	尖度	max |r|
2 いろいろと考えるよりも直感的に判断する	3.44	1.70	-0.17	1.00	0.63
19 直感に頼るよりも細かく分析して考える	2.65	1.41	0.20	-0.35	0.63
7 論理的に正しいことを一番大切にする	3.49	1.65	-0.05	-0.83	0.54
14 論理的に納得できるまで考える	3.60	1.59	-0.31	-0.50	0.54
35 課題をする際、初めに手順を決めずにその場その場で決めていく	3.28	1.58	-0.15	-0.61	0.52
45 課題を始める前にどのような手順でするか決める	3.00	1.50	-0.05	-0.58	0.52
21 実際に使える状況がすぐに思い浮かべられる	2.60	1.45	0.23	-0.37	0.51
44 新しいことを勉強したら実際にどのように使えるのか考える	3.45	1.40	-0.35	-0.01	0.51
46 いろいろと考えた方がいいと思うので、結論は慎重に出す	3.36	1.46	-0.23	-0.40	0.47
47 目標に向かって一歩一歩段階的に進めていく	3.45	1.45	-0.37	-0.20	0.47
31 目標を立てて意欲的に取組む	3.26	1.44	-0.23	-0.45	0.47
37 実際に使って自然に身につけていく	2.84	1.60	0.18	-0.71	0.47
17 1つ1つ確実に理解していく	3.31	1.49	-0.08	-0.64	0.46
18 課題をする際、どのような結果になるのかを考えてから始める	2.69	1.44	0.14	-0.49	0.45
16 今までとは違う新しいことに挑戦する	2.85	1.53	-0.03	-0.67	0.45
20 うまくいくかどうか分からなくてもいろいろな方法を試す	3.25	1.45	-0.10	-0.51	0.45
13 課題を達成するために一番いい方法を考える	3.63	1.46	-0.23	-0.32	0.44
15 必要な情報を教師、友人、本などからできるだけ集める	3.31	1.54	-0.14	-0.54	0.44
10 勉強していることばでコミュニケーションしているところを想像している	2.72	1.80	0.11	-1.07	0.44
32 文法の規則に従って考える	3.63	1.47	-0.52	-0.07	0.43
36 あいまいな点があるとなかなか先に進めない	3.63	1.70	-0.45	-0.62	0.42
22 慣れない方法でも柔軟に対応できる	2.45	1.37	0.25	-0.34	0.42
9 1つの正しい答えを求める	2.93	1.68	0.06	-0.69	0.39
24 新しく学んだことを体系的に整理する	3.45	1.36	-0.04	-0.58	0.39
41 規則が分かったら他の場合にも適用する	4.21	1.14	-0.74	1.13	0.39
25 答えを決める前にいろいろな選択肢をよく比べる	3.80	1.45	-0.55	0.10	0.38
30 多くの具体例を集めて考える	3.28	1.34	-0.01	-0.31	0.38
3 課題（作文や発表など）をするときは準備に時間をかける	3.43	1.78	-0.31	-0.98	0.37
8 間違いを気にせずやってみる	3.22	1.62	0.04	-0.92	0.37
33 思いついたことは深く考える前にことばにする	2.82	1.64	0.26	-0.79	0.37
12 具体例から規則を見つけ出そうとする	4.09	1.31	-0.52	-0.09	0.35
34 1つの問題に対していくつもの解決方法を考える	2.98	1.30	0.21	-0.09	0.34

表2（続き）

48 自分が考えたことが正しいかどうか試す	3.65	1.43	-0.56	0.17	0.33
1 実用的であることを一番大切にする	4.21	1.40	-0.62	0.09	0.33
11 細かいことが分からなくても全体が大きくつかめる	3.90	1.41	-0.41	-0.48	0.33
38 ことばの裏にある意味を考える	3.04	1.59	-0.17	-0.64	0.33
6 1つのことについていろいろな視点から考える	3.18	1.51	-0.08	-0.46	0.32
5 自分で規則を見つけながら勉強する	4.10	1.45	-0.73	-0.06	0.32
28 課題を素早く終わらせることができる	2.55	1.62	0.30	-0.67	0.32
29 後で役に立つかどうかよりも、今楽しいことを大切にする	3.13	1.55	0.10	-0.48	0.31
42 自分でやってみるよりも、他の人がやっているのを見ている	2.84	1.38	0.27	-0.22	0.29
4 効果的な方法だと思ったらずっとそれを使う	4.39	1.36	-0.82	0.35	0.29
39 ことばの構造に興味がある	2.95	1.81	-0.08	-1.06	0.29
26 実際の状況が想定できないと理解しにくい	3.77	1.49	-0.38	-0.42	0.27
27 勉強していることはすべて重要だと考える	2.69	1.76	0.16	-0.92	0.25
43 詳しい説明よりも要点を押さえた説明を求める	4.03	1.48	-0.65	-0.19	0.24
23 方法がどうであれ、課題を達成することを大切にする	3.67	1.47	-0.33	-0.36	0.23
40 決まった言い方は分析せずにそのまま覚えて使う	3.64	1.63	-0.26	-0.75	0.21

結果

まず因子数を指定せずに主成分法による因子分析を実行したところ、固有値1.0以上の9因子解が得られた（表3）。しかし2本の軸を想定するELTにしたがって、まず2因子解・バリマックス回転で分析を行ってみた。その結果2因子解では第1因子、第2因子ともに大きく負の負荷がある項目は見られず、軸は両極化しているとは言えなかった。4因子解でも分析を実行したが、ELTに基づく項目のみで構成される因子はなかった。

表3： 31項目($|r_i|>.35$)に主成分法を適用した際の初期の固有値（N=218）（第10成分以下は省略）

成分	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
合計	5.70	3.98	2.13	1.65	1.50	1.19	1.15	1.11	1.03

そこでELTから離れて分析を行うことにした。第5因子以下の固有値の変化が比較的小さかったため5因子解とし、また因子間に相関があると考えられたため、軸を斜交して回転するプロマックス回転を用いて分析を行った。その結果が表4、また5因子の因子間相関が表5である。

表4： 主成分法・プロマックス回転後の因子分析結果
（因子パターン行列と共通性）(N=218)

		I	II	III	IV	V	h2
I	熟考因子 (α=.77)						
45	課題を始める前にどのような手順でするか決める	0.78	-0.19	0.00	0.26	0.01	0.59
35	課題をする際、初めに手順を決めずに･･･	-0.74	0.29	0.02	0.10	-0.03	0.42
46	いろいろと考えた方がいいと思うので、結論は･･･	0.68	0.03	-0.13	0.07	0.07	0.53
47	目標に向かって一歩一歩段階的に進めていく	0.61	0.13	0.28	-0.09	-0.08	0.50
3	課題（作文や発表など）をするときは準備に･･･	0.59	0.01	0.03	-0.19	-0.07	0.37
18	課題をする際、どのような結果になるのかを･･･	0.56	0.10	0.03	0.24	-0.25	0.40
31	目標を立てて意欲的に取組む	0.45	0.02	0.42	0.13	0.04	0.43
2	いろいろと考えるよりも直感的に判断する	-0.37	-0.21	0.08	0.28	0.09	0.37
32	文法の規則に従って考える	0.35	0.29	-0.10	-0.22	0.29	0.53
II	論理因子 (α=.76)						
14	論理的に納得できるまで考える	-0.18	0.77	0.00	0.07	0.18	0.57
7	論理的に正しいことを一番大切にする	-0.21	0.76	-0.05	0.07	0.10	0.50
9	1つの正しい答えを求める	-0.07	0.76	-0.15	0.15	-0.25	0.53
17	1つ1つ確実に理解していく	0.32	0.51	0.20	-0.04	0.01	0.55
36	あいまいな点があるとなかなか先に進めない	0.22	0.45	0.04	-0.21	-0.10	0.39
19	直感に頼るよりも細かく分析して考える	0.38	0.40	-0.03	-0.08	0.06	0.50
III	実用因子 (α=.75)						
21	実際に使える状況がすぐに思い浮かべられる	-0.01	0.04	0.77	0.07	0.01	0.63
44	新しいことを勉強したら実際にどのように･･･	0.19	-0.18	0.73	0.02	0.15	0.59
10	勉強していることばでコミュニケーション･･･	0.01	-0.03	0.71	-0.06	0.02	0.48
37	実際に使って自然に身につけていく	-0.13	-0.01	0.62	0.27	-0.04	0.57
IV	挑戦因子 (α=.65)						
16	今までとは違う新しいことに挑戦する	0.16	0.13	0.11	0.69	-0.14	0.54
20	うまくいくかどうか分からなくてもいろいろな･･･	-0.04	0.04	-0.09	0.65	0.13	0.45
22	慣れない方法でも柔軟に対応できる	-0.04	-0.01	0.25	0.56	0.00	0.46
15	必要な情報を教師、友人、本などから･･･	0.23	0.27	-0.08	0.53	0.14	0.53
8	間違いを気にせずやってみる	-0.16	-0.29	0.01	0.48	0.05	0.40
13	課題を達成するために一番いい方法を考える	0.15	0.26	-0.22	0.42	0.23	0.44
33	思いついたことは深く考える前にことばにする	-0.33	0.14	0.20	0.41	-0.06	0.32

表4（続き）

V	秩序因子 (α=.67)						
41	規則が分かったら他の場合にも適用する	-0.29	0.09	0.23	-0.17	0.70	0.52
12	具体例から規則を見つけ出そうとする	-0.11	0.04	-0.04	0.03	0.66	0.43
30	多くの具体例を集めて考える	0.04	-0.07	0.02	0.13	0.65	0.47
24	新しく学んだことを体系的に整理する	0.00	0.25	0.12	0.03	0.59	0.50
25	答えを決める前にいろいろな選択肢をよく比べる	0.31	-0.28	-0.11	0.16	0.56	0.47

注：各項目の正確な文章については表２参照

表５：主成分法・プロマックス回転後の因子間相関行列

因子	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.00				
2	0.51	1.00			
3	-0.05	-0.06	1.00		
4	0.02	-0.06	0.26	1.00	
5	0.23	0.23	0.06	0.23	1.00

第1因子は「課題を始める前にどのような手順でするか決める」、「いろいろと考えた方がいいと思うので、結論は慎重に出す」など慎重に決断し一歩一歩学習を進めていくことから「熟考因子」と名づけられる。第2因子は「論理的に納得できるまで考える」、「論理的に正しいことを一番大切にする」など論理性、正確性を大切にすることから「論理因子」と名づけられる。第3因子は「実際に使える状況がすぐに思い浮かべられる」、「新しいことを勉強したら実際にどのように使えるのか考える」など実際に使用することを常に考えていることから「実用因子」と名づけられる。第4因子は「今までとは違う新しいことに挑戦する」、「うまくいくかどうか分からなくてもいろいろな方法を試す」など新しいことに柔軟に対応し、行動して問題解決にあたることから「挑戦因子」と名づけられる。第5因子は「具体例から規則を見つけ出そうとする」、「規則が分かったら他の場合にも適用する」、など多くの情報から規則を見出し、体系的に整理して適用しながら学んでいくことから「秩序因子」と名づけられる。

各因子の内的一貫性を検討するためにクロンバックのα係数を求めた結果、「熟考因子」で.77、「論理因子」で.76、「実用因子」で.75、「挑戦因子」で.65、「秩序因子」で.67の値が得られた。5因子のすべてについて内的一貫性が認められたと言えよう。また表5より因子間に正

の相関が見られるものがあるが、負の相関はないに等しい。そのためKolbの想定した両極化した2つの軸があるのではなく、すべての因子が多少の相関をもちながら独立して存在すると考えられる。

考察

以上、本研究で新たに抽出されたのは、Kolbのものとは異なる「熟考」、「論理」、「実用」、「挑戦」、「秩序」という5つの因子であった。これらを外国語の学習スタイルとすると、５つのスタイルは以下のように解釈できる。

「熟考」スタイルが強い学習者は目標に向かって一歩一歩進んでいくのに対し、弱い学習者は直感的で場当たり的な方法をとると考えられる。「論理」スタイルを強く持つ学習者は論理的であることを重視して1つの正しい答えを探しながら学んでいくが、もたない学習者は論理的には考えず、直感や暗記に頼るような学習を行うことが予想される。「実用」スタイルが強い学習者は想像力が豊かで実際の場面で積極的に言葉を使うことによって身につけていくのに対し、弱い学習者は実用性をあまり重視しないと考えられる。「挑戦」スタイルが強い場合は新しいことに柔軟に対応して経験から学んでいけるのに対し、逆の場合は消極的で受身的な学習を行う。そして「秩序」スタイルが強いと多くの情報を体系的に整理して規則を応用して学んでいけるが、弱い場合は自分で多くの情報から規則を見出すことや規則を応用して学ぶことが困難であると予想される。学習スタイルはあるものが他のものより優れているということはないため、上記のすべての外国語学習スタイルが重要であると言える。したがって、いずれかのスタイルが弱い学習者は外国語学習に何らかの問題を抱えていると考えられる。

結論

本研究ではKolbのELTに基づいて外国語学習スタイル調査票を日本語で作成し、日本人大学生に対して調査を行った。分析には因子分析を用い、2因子解と4因子解で分析を行ったが、Kolbが想定しているようなプラスマイナスをもつ２つの軸や４つの学習スタイルの存在は認められず、独立して存在する5つの因子の存在が確認された。このことはELTに基づく調査票を日本人大学生に使用し、結果をそのまま解釈するのは問題があるということを示している。

本研究には調査票の項目が不適当でELTを反映できていないのではいかという批判もあるかもしれない。しかし、因子分析で抽出された5因子はそれぞれ独立していて内的一貫性も認められるため、日本人大学生にはELTとは異なる学習スタイルが存在する可能性が高い。しかしながらこのことからすぐにELTを否定することはできない。なぜならKolbは

学習全般の学習スタイルを扱っているが、本研究では外国語学習に限ったために5つの因子が抽出されたとも考えられるからである。もしこの考え方が正しいとすれば学習全般の学習理論とは別に外国語学習の学習理論が存在することになる。また他の可能性として、本研究の結果とELTは学習スタイルを少し異なる視点からそれぞれ捉えており、どちらも学習スタイルの異なる側面を捉えているという可能性、さらに大きな視点から見ると両者を包括するような枠組みが存在するという可能性も考えられる。このように様々な可能性が考えられることから、今後はこうした可能性を視野に入れた研究が必要であると思われる。

筆者略歴

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注

1 LSIでは質問項目は12項目であるが、それぞれ1位から4位までの強制順位付けを行うため48の文章を作成していることになる。
2 表1に対応すると考えられた項目は、表2の項目番号では以下の通り。
CE: 2,8,11,16,20,22,26,29,33,35,37,40
RO: 3,6,10,15,21,25,27,30,34,38,42,46,
AC: 5,7,12,14,17,19,24,32,36,39,45,47
AE: 1,4,9,13,18,23,28,31,41,43,44,48

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Representation of Users and Uses of English in Beginning Japanese EFL Textbooks

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This study explores the representation of English users and uses in Japanese EFL textbooks for seventh graders that have been approved by the Ministry of Education. Analysis of the nationality of the main characters and the contexts and types of English use featured in the chapters suggests that the textbooks tend to emphasize the inner circle (Kachru, 1985) both in intranational and international use. The representation of users and uses in other contexts, particularly of those in the outer circle, is much more limited despite the growing recognition of the spread of English and the increased use of English outside of the inner circle (Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 1997). Based on the findings, I discuss the extent to which these textbooks represent the current global uses and users of English, consider the appropriateness of the representation, and suggest ways to help English learners become more aware of the sociolinguistic complexity of the English language.

本研究では、中学一年生対象の検定教科書７冊において、英語使用者および用途がどのように表現されているかを調査した。登場人物の国籍と各課に含まれる英語使用の状況と種類を分析したところ、国内言語・国際言語両方の使用においてInner Circle (Kachru, 1985) の英語話者と彼らの英語使用に重点をおく傾向があることがわかった。同時に、それ以外の状況、特にOuter Circleでの英語使用と英語話者は、教科書内での表現はあまりみられなかった。本論文では、この結果をふまえ、教科書が現在世界における英語が果たしている役割をいかに正確に表しているかを議論し、その適切さを考察するとともに、英語の複雑な社会言語学的背景の理解を促す方法を提示した。

English performs a wide variety of functions in different parts of the world. In the *inner circle* (i.e., Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the United States) (Kachru,

1985), the majority of people learn English as their first language. Even when they speak another language at home, English is likely to become their dominant language because of the extended exposure to the language outside the home and the numerous functions the language performs in society. In *outer circle* countries and regions such as India, Singapore, and Nigeria, which are former colonies of inner circle countries, English is institutionalized. That is, English has acquired an extended range of uses in intranational communication (e.g., language of law, medium of education), linguistic nativization has taken place, and literary works are created in that variety of English, although other languages (usually indigenous languages) still maintain important functions (Kachru, 1992). In the *expanding circle*, people learn English as a foreign language and use it predominantly for international, rather than intranational, communication. Furthermore, English does not have the extended functions it has in the inner or outer circle.

In addition to the increase in its functions, the worldwide spread of English has changed the demographics of the population of English users. English is not used exclusively among native English speakers or between native and nonnative English speakers anymore, but also often for communication among so-called nonnative speakers of English (Graddol, 1997; Smith, 1983; Widdowson, 1994).[1] Because it is increasingly used among people who were traditionally regarded as nonnative speakers, i.e., speakers from the outer and expanding circles, the assumption that nonnative English speakers learn English in order to communicate with native English speakers and learn about their culture does not always hold true anymore. In fact, the role of nonnative speakers in shaping the form and functions of the English language has increased. As Graddol (1997) states, "native speakers may feel the language 'belongs' to them, but it will be those who speak English as a second or foreign language who will determine its world future" (p. 5).

This worldwide spread and the consequent changes, such as the expansion and complications in the variety of uses and the increasing uses among nonnative speakers, are important characteristics of the English language. Consequently, acknowledging all of these functions of the language is essential for understanding the sociolinguistic complexity of the English language.

However, in Japan and perhaps also in other countries in the expanding circle, many English learners and even some teachers still perceive English exclusively as the language of the inner circle and the purpose of learning English to be merely to access the inner circle culture. For

instance, a qualitative case study of Japanese secondary school students (Matsuda, forthcoming) suggested that, although they perceived English to be an international language in the sense that it is being used internationally, they did not believe it belonged to the world at large. Rather, the students perceived the language as the property of native English speakers (Americans and British, more specifically) and believed that the closer they followed native speakers' usage, the better. Their awareness of outer circle countries, including the forms and functions of English used in them, was extremely limited (see Friedrich, 2000, for a similar example from Brazil).

The picture of English uses and users that these Japanese students had is incomplete in the sense that it does not acknowledge the increase in the use of English among so-called nonnative speakers of English, and thus is problematic for several reasons. First, if students do not understand the significance of the uses of English among nonnative speakers, they cannot fully take advantage of the opportunities that accompany the use of English as an international language. Instead, students may assume that English belongs to the inner circle and that others, who are expected to conform to inner circle norms, should remain in an oppressed, peripheral position in international communication in English.

Secondly, such a limited perception of the English language may lead to confusion or resistance when students are confronted with different types of English users or uses (e.g., users from the outer circle). Students may be shocked by varieties and uses of English that deviate from the inner circle English, view them as deficient rather than different, or be disrespectful of such varieties and uses. Lastly, a limited understanding of the users and uses of the language may have a negative effect on language acquisition. A language is not merely a combination of discrete linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge, but rather, it is a dynamic system embedded in a social context (Halliday, 1978; Berns, 1990). Therefore the awareness of the context of English, including its worldwide spread, the consequent diversity in its forms and functions, and its increased use among so-called nonnative speakers, can be considered crucial for understanding and acquiring the language.

One of the possible sources of influence on students' perception of English is their English class, where students are intensively exposed to the target language. Textbooks, in particular, can be a significant source of exposure to various users and uses of English and may play a vital role in the construction of students' perceptions of the English language because they play an important role in EFL classrooms. Hino (1988), in

his study of the representation of nationalism in Japanese EFL textbooks from different historical periods, argued that textbooks not only disseminate knowledge but also express, reinforce, and construct a certain view of the world. Such influence may be especially strong in Japan, where textbooks, which are approved by the national government and selected by the local school district, have institutional authority and where classroom lessons tend to be constructed closely around the textbooks. In addition, EFL students tend to perceive their textbooks as high prestige sources of input because they do not receive much input outside the classroom (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996). All these factors make textbooks an influential source of input for students and a logical place to begin an inquiry about the presentation of English in Japanese EFL classrooms and the construction of students' beliefs and perceptions of the English language.

The current study explores the representation of English users and uses in beginning EFL textbooks used in the first year of junior high school (7th grade) in Japan. Specifically, the following research questions were investigated:

1. What kinds of people are represented as English users in 7th-grade Japanese EFL textbooks?

2. What kinds of English uses are represented in these textbooks?

Based on the findings, I will discuss how thoroughly these textbooks represent the current global uses and users of English, consider the appropriateness of the representation, and suggest ways to help English learners raise their awareness of the sociolinguistic complexity of the English language.

Methodology

Textbook Selection

The current study analyzed all seven 7th-grade textbooks that were approved by Monbusho[2] (the Ministry of Education) in 1996 and were in use from April 1997 to March 2002.

Table 1: List of Textbooks

Title	Publisher
Columbus English Course 1 (CO)	Mitsumura Tosho
Everyday English 1 (EE)	Chukyo Shuppan
New Crown English Series New Edition 1 (NC)	Sanseido
New Horizon 1 (NH)	Tokyo Shoseki
One World 1 (OW)	Kyoiku Shuppan
Sunshine 1 (SS)	Kairyudo
Total English 1 (TE)	Shubun Shuppan

I chose to analyze Monbusho-approved textbooks because of the significant role they play in English classrooms across the country. All public elementary and secondary schools in Japan are required to follow the national curriculum and use textbooks that are approved by the Ministry of Education. Even private schools, which are not required to follow the national curriculum, often adopt a Monbusho-approved textbook as one of their primary textbooks. Therefore, virtually all secondary school students, including the participants of the aforementioned study on the perception of the ownership of English (Matsuda, forthcoming), come in contact with Monbusho-approved textbooks in their English classes.

In addition, because the Monbusho only approves textbooks that closely follow the national curriculum, the approved textbooks often become the curriculum itself. Even at private schools, where more flexibility is allowed in the selection of teaching materials than in public schools, some lessons follow the structure of Monbusho-approved textbooks closely and do not involve any outside materials (see Matsuda, 2000a). While I would not claim that this is the case for all English curricula in Japan, it can be said that Monbusho-approved textbooks play a large role in the EFL curriculum at Japanese secondary schools, and that is the primary reason for selecting Monbusho-approved textbooks for the current study.

Among all Monbusho-approved English textbooks, seventh-grade textbooks were selected because they provide the first formal encounter that most students have with English, and thus the explicit and implicit messages they send about the users and uses of English potentially have a strong influence on students' perceptions of English.

The contents of all seven textbooks that were reviewed are organized

in a similar manner. Each has 11 to 15 chapters consisting of the main text (usually a dialogue that introduces new vocabulary and sentence structures) and tasks related to the new function or sentence structures introduced in the main text. Summaries of grammar points and informational notes about English speaking cultures are presented at the end of each chapter, after every few chapters, or at the end of the textbook. Additional readings, poems, songs, word lists, alphabet tables, and pronunciation guides are found between chapters or at the end of the textbook.

Analysis

In order to understand the representation of users and uses of English in Japanese EFL textbooks, the main characters in the textbooks and the contexts and types of English uses presented in the chapters were investigated.

The first research question of the study was "What kinds of people are represented as English users in seventh-grade Japanese EFL textbooks?" In order to answer this question, I identified the nationality of the main characters, who were introduced in the early sections of each textbook before the regular chapters began. I also counted the number of words uttered by each character.

The second research question was "What kinds of English uses are represented in seventh-grade Japanese EFL textbooks?" To address this question, the contexts and types of English uses represented in the main texts of the chapters were identified and analyzed. The analysis of the contexts involved the identification of countries in which characters used English. The contexts represented in the textbooks included (1) Japan, (2) inner circle countries, (3) outer circle countries, (4) expanding circle countries other than Japan, (5) multiple contexts (e.g., international phone calls and letters that involved more than one of the above four contexts), (6) fictional contexts (e.g., in a time machine), and (7) unknown/no context (e.g., introduction of numbers). For each context type, I counted the number of chapters that included English uses taking place in that context. Dialogues on an international flight were categorized by the country of destination.

Types of English use can be defined and classified in various ways, but in this study, I decided to focus on whether the use is intranational or international. Intranational use in this study is defined as the use of English between people from the same country, while international use refers to use between people from different countries. Intranational use

is further divided into three types: between people from the same *inner* circle country, between people from the same *outer* circle country, and between people from the same *expanding* circle country. International use is also further divided into three types: between people from different inner circle countries (i.e., native speakers from different countries), between native speakers and nonnative speakers (i.e., people from the outer or expanding circle) of English, and exclusively among nonnative speakers of English[3]. Figure 1 illustrates the six types of English uses whose representation was investigated in this study.

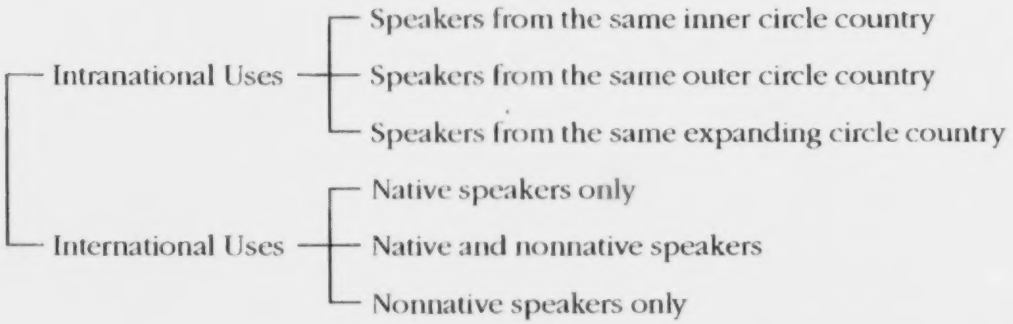
Intranational Uses
Speakers from the same inner circle country
Speakers from the same outer circle country
Speakers from the same expanding circle country
International Uses
Native speakers only
Native and nonnative speakers
Nonnative speakers only

Figure 1: Types of English Uses

To test the reliability of the coding scheme for the analysis of contexts and types of uses, I trained an outside coder and asked him to analyze one textbook with 13 chapters (14.6% of all chapters analyzed). Inter-rater agreement figures of 0.94 and 0.93 were achieved for the analysis of contexts and the analysis of types of uses, respectively.

Furthermore, the additional reading passages, poems, songs, word lists, cultural notes, and pictorial images were also studied in order to supplement the analysis.

Results and Discussion

Nationality of the Main Characters

Table 2 shows where the main characters in each textbook came from and the number of words uttered by those characters in the main text.

Table 2: Nationality of the Main Characters and the Number of Words Uttered by those Characters

Textbook	Japan	IC	OC	EC Other than Japan	Unknown
CO	9 (456)	4 (586)	0	0	0
EE	3 (463)	4 (341)	0	1 (120)	2 (88)
NC	10 (582)	1 (212)	1 (70)	3 (81)	0
NH	3 (258)	3 (258)	0	1 (218)	0
OW	2 (348)	5 (396)	1 (143)	0	1 (17)
SS	4 (257)	9 (523)	0	0	0
TE	3 (480)	4 (758)	0	0	0
Total	34 (2844)	30 (3074)	2 (213)	5 (419)	3 (105)

Note: Number of words uttered is in parentheses

The majority of the 74 main characters are from Japan (34) or inner circle countries including the U.S., Canada, Australia, and Scotland (30). The number of characters from the outer circle (one each from Hong Kong[4] and Kenya) and the expanding circle other than Japan (a total of five, with one from Indonesia, three from China, and one from Brazil) are relatively few. The comparison of the number of words uttered shows a similar pattern, with slightly greater emphasis on the inner circle characters. Japanese characters outnumber inner circle characters by four but they produce fewer words (2,844 words) than those from the inner circle (3,074 words). Characters from the outer circle and expanding circle countries other than Japan produce only 213 words and 419 words, respectively.

This dominant representation of speakers from Japan and the inner circle is found in individual textbooks as well. The only exception is *New Crown* (Morizumi, 1997), which has more speakers from the expanding circle (ten Japanese and three others) than the inner circle (one person) or the outer circle (one person). However, it should be noted that even in this textbook, the number of words uttered by the only inner circle speaker (212 words) is still much larger than that of the only outer circle speaker (70 words) or that of the three speakers from expanding circle countries other than Japan (81 words).

The large number of inner circle characters in all the textbooks reviewed, except for the one just mentioned above, gives the impression that they are the dominant users of English. Japanese main characters are also numerous, but due to the limited number of examples of intra-

national use included in the texts, they do not come across as regular and extensive users of English but rather as prototypical examples of EFL learners, similar to the textbooks' audience. In contrast, representation of users from the outer circle and expanding countries other than Japan is limited in terms of both the number of characters and their roles in dialogues. This does not seem to reflect growing recognition of the spread of English (Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 1997) and sends the message that English users from the outer and expanding circles hold only peripheral roles in the use of English worldwide.

Contexts of English Use

Table 3 illustrates the number of chapters in the reviewed textbooks that include examples of English use in each context. Use in Japan and the inner circle is represented more often than use in the outer circle or expanding circle countries other than Japan.

Table 3: Contexts of English Uses

Textbook	Japan	IC	OC	EC Other than Japan	Multi-Context	Fictional	Unknown/ No Context
CO	13	0	0	0	0	0	0
EE	10	0	0	0	2 (J-IC)	4	1
NC	10	0	0	0	0	1	0
NH	7	0	0	0	0	5	0
OW	1	9	1	0	2 (J-IC; J-OC)	0	2
SS	5	7	0	0	1 (J-IC)	0	1
TE	11	1	0	0	0	0	0
Total	57	17	1	0	5	10	4

Japan is the most common context for English use in five of the seven individual textbooks as well as in the overall distribution in all the textbooks combined. For instance, all dialogues in *Columbus* (Togo & Matsuno, 1997) and most dialogues in *Total* (Horiguchi, Goris, & Yada, 1997) are between Japanese students and their American friends or teachers living in Japan. Use in the inner circle is represented in more than half of the chapters in *Sunshine* (Shimaoka, Aoki, Matsuhata, & Wada, 1997) and *One World* (Sasaki, 1997), in which the main characters visit the U.S. and Australia, inner circle countries, and use English

to communicate with people there. Four out of five "multi-context" examples also involved Japan and an inner circle country. In contrast, use in the outer circle and expanding circle countries other than Japan is represented much less frequently than use in Japan and the inner circle. Of all the textbooks, only *One World* (Sasaki, 1997) includes a chapter that features the use of English in an outer circle country, Hong Kong. English use in expanding circle countries other than Japan is not represented in any of the textbooks.

Thus, representation of the contexts of English use emphasizes the use of English in the inner circle and Japan rather than the use of English in the outer circle and other expanding circle countries.

Types of Uses I: Intranational vs. International Use

Table 4 compares the number of chapters in each textbook that include intranational use among speakers from the same countries and ones that include international use between English users from different countries.

Table 4: Intranational vs. International Uses

Textbook	Intranational Uses	International Uses
CO	1	11
EE	3	10
NC	0	10
NH	0	11
OW	2	10
SS	2	10
TE	3	11
Total	11	73

International use is represented more commonly than intranational use. The majority of chapters, amounting to at least ten chapters in each textbook and 73 of 89 chapters overall, include some representation of international use of English. Intranational use, on the other hand, is represented in only 11 chapters overall and not found at all in *New Crown* (Morizumi, 1997) or *New Horizon* (Asano, Makino, & Shimomura, 1997). References to the international status of English in sections of the

textbook other than the chapter dialogues are also found. For example, a note in the appendix of *Sunshine* (Shimaoka et al., 1997) states that "English can be considered an international language because it is used in various parts of the world" (p. 102), and a cultural note in *One World* (Sasaki, 1997) encourages students to "broaden [their] 'world' through learning English, which is one of the common languages of the world" (p. 95).[5] The prominence of the presentation of the international use of English in these textbooks seems to emphasize the language's role as an international language. This representation makes sense considering that these textbooks are used in Japan, where English is not used for daily intranational communication, but mainly for international communication (Yano, 1992).[6]

Types of Uses II: Intranational Use

Table 5 compares the number of chapters representing each of the three types of intranational use: use among people from the same inner circle country, use among people from the same outer circle country, and use among the speakers from the same expanding circle country.

Table 5: Three Types of Intranational Uses

Textbook	IC	OC	EC
CO	1	0	0
EE	1	0	2
NC	0	0	0
NH	0	0	0
OW	2	0	0
SS	2	0	0
TE	3	0	0
Total	9	0	2

The majority of intranational use takes place among inner circle English users. Nine out of ten chapters that present some kind of intranational use include the use of English between the inner circle English speakers. For example, *Columbus* (Togo & Matsuno, 1997) depicts an American boy and his parents speaking English at the breakfast table,

and in *Sunshine* (Shimaoka et al., 1997), Emily calls her family in New York and talks to them in English. In addition, some textbooks include pictures and texts that refer to the customs and cultures of inner circle countries and their people. *New Crown* (Morizumi, 1997), *New Horizon* (Asano et al., 1997), and *Columbus* (Togo & Matsuno, 1997) have pictures of American school life, and a chapter on numbers from *One World* (Sasaki, 1997) lists emergency telephone numbers from four inner circle countries only: the U.S., U.K., Australia, and New Zealand.

References to intranational use involving speakers from the other two circles are also present in the textbooks, especially in sections other than the regular chapters. For example, five of seven textbooks have preliminary pages that introduce "Classroom English," and four of them include exchanges between Japanese students and a Japanese teacher of English, representing intranational use between speakers from the expanding circle. Also, some comments and maps refer to the use of English in the outer circle: a list of countries and languages spoken in each country mentioned in the textbook in *New Crown* (Morizumi, 1997) shows English as one of the languages spoken in the outer circle countries included, and a map in *Total* (Horiguchi et al., 1997) uses different colors to indicate the countries where English is the dominant language (the inner circle) and those where English is a lingua franca (the outer circle). While these lists and maps do not elaborate on the use of English in those countries, they at least acknowledge the use of English in the outer circle.

However, in the main texts, the representation of intranational use among people from the outer and expanding circle is limited. Only two chapters include the representation of intranational use between people from Japan, an expanding circle country, specifically dialogues between a Japanese main character and her mother. Intranational use in the outer circle is not represented at all in any of the chapter dialogues.

The extensive presentation of the use of English among people from the inner circle, combined with pictures and texts that refer to the inner circle cultures, sends a message that English is most closely associated with the inner circle. The role of English as an intranational language for those from the inner circle may also be implied when English is presented as one of many languages in the world. For example, a section in *Columbus* (Togo & Matsuno, 1997) that features photos from Mali, Russia, Spain, Mexico, Kuwait, Brazil, and the U.S. with their dominant languages printed as the caption may suggest to students that one function of English is intranational use in the U.S.

On the other hand, in Japan, English is not used regularly or extensively in daily communication. Thus, the presentation of English use among Japanese characters in textbooks may represent the limited but increasing use of English as a medium of English instruction (e.g., classroom English) and encourage students to use and practice English outside the classroom (e.g., to write poems or to keep diaries).

In sum, the analysis of intranational uses demonstrates that the representation of the use of English between inner circle users is much more common than other types, especially the use of English among speakers from the outer circle.

Types of Uses III: International Use

Table 6 shows the number of chapters that include presentation of the three types of international use: exclusively among native English speakers, between native and nonnative speakers of English, and exclusively among nonnative English speakers.

Table 6: Three Types of International Uses

Textbook	NS Only	Both NS and NNS	NNS Only
CO	0	11	0
EE	0	8	2
NC	0	7	3
NH	0	11	1
OW	0	9	1
SS	0	9	2
TE	0	11	0
Total	0	66	9

The overwhelming majority of the chapters present international use between one or more native speakers and one or more nonnative speakers of English. Such use was represented in all of the textbooks reviewed. Dialogues between Japanese students and their American teacher or friends, for example, are the only type of international use in *Total* (Horiguchi et al., 1997) and *Columbus* (Togo & Matsuno, 1997). In *Sunshine* (Shimaoka et al., 1997) and *One World* (Sasaki, 1997), the main characters use English extensively to talk to native speakers when they

visit the U.S. and Australia, inner circle countries.

Five of seven textbooks also present some English use exclusively among nonnative speakers, including a dialogue between a Kenyan student and Japanese students in *New Crown* (Morizumi, 1997), dialogues between a Japanese student and a Chinese student in *New Crown* (Morizumi, 1997), and dialogues between an Indonesian student and Japanese students in *Everyday English* (Ueda, 1997). However, the number of chapters that include this type of international use is considerably smaller than that of those representing international use between native and nonnative speakers. Most of the dialogues that are exclusively among nonnative speakers involve Japanese speakers and other nonnative speakers who are visiting or living in Japan, although one lesson in *One World* (Sasaki, 1997) includes a dialogue between a Japanese student and her Hong Kong friend that takes place in Hong Kong. International use between speakers from different inner circle countries is not represented in any chapters.

Although the international use of English exclusively among nonnative speakers is increasing (Smith, 1983), the textbooks that were investigated in this study do not reflect this trend. The predominant representation of the international use of English between native and nonnative speakers may give the impression that nonnative speakers learn English in order to communicate with those from the inner circle.

Conclusion

The current study explored the representation of uses and users of English in Japanese 7th-grade EFL textbooks. The findings suggested that these textbooks tended to emphasize the inner circle, both in intranational and international use. English users from the inner circle were presented as the primary users of English, and the majority of chapter dialogues that took place outside of Japan were situated in the inner circle. The predominant users of English for intranational communication were also those from the inner circle, and the majority of international use presented involved communication between native (i.e., the inner circle) and nonnative speakers. The representation of users and uses in other contexts, particularly those in the outer circle and expanding circle countries other than Japan, was much more limited; there were fewer main characters from those countries, and their roles in dialogues were much more limited than characters from Japan or the inner circle. The representation of English use in the outer and expanding circles

(except Japan), both for international and intranational uses, was also only sporadic. International use exclusively among nonnative speakers, which is believed to be increasing as a result of the worldwide spread of English (Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 1997; Smith, 1983), was represented much less often than that involving native speakers.

This inner-circle orientation in the representation of English users and use in these textbooks resembles the view of the ownership of English held by Japanese secondary school students (Matsuda, forthcoming). While a causal relationship cannot be claimed without empirical verification, the similarity between students' perceptions of English users and use and the textbooks' representations, along with the significant role the textbooks tend to play in Japanese schools, suggests that the representation of English in EFL textbooks may be an important source of influence in the construction of students' attitudes and perceptions toward the target language.[7]

If we accept that textbook representation can influence students' perceptions of the English language and its users and uses, the representations found in these textbooks, which focus overwhelmingly on the users and uses of English in the inner circle and Japan and not on those in the outer circle and expanding circle countries other than Japan are problematic. Such a limited view of the language will not prepare students adequately to use English in the future with other nonnative speakers of English. In order to facilitate a better understanding of English users and uses, some changes in the textbooks are needed. For example, textbooks could include more main characters from the outer circle and the expanding circle and assign them bigger roles in chapter dialogues than the roles they currently have. Some dialogues that either represent or refer to the use of English as a lingua franca in multilingual outer circle countries could also be added to chapters. Also, the presence of characters from countries other than Japan and the inner circle would make the inclusion of cultural topics and pictures from those countries easy. Exposure to outer circle and expanding circle countries other than Japan through the representation of English use and users in those countries would help students understand that English use is not limited to the inner circle.

Of course, teaching materials other than textbooks, such as teacher's manuals and commercial supplementary materials, as well as other aspects of teaching, including classroom practices and students' and teachers' attitudes, can supplement the textbook representation of the users and uses of English. For instance, movies, videos, audio clips, or

interaction with international visitors and residents in the community can be incorporated into the classroom activities in order to help students understand that there are many varieties of English. While the American variety, given its preferential status in the current international communication scene, may be a reasonable choice as a target model in Japanese EFL classrooms, students must understand that it is just one of many varieties of English that they may come in contact with in the future. In addition, classroom discussions can address explicit statements in textbooks about the forms and functions of English, such as "Pronunciation of English varies in different countries and regions" (Shimaoka et al., 1997, p. 40) and "English is a world common language. It is an important means of communication when speaking with people from other Asian countries, too." (Sasaki, 1997, p.95). Textbooks may touch upon those issues only briefly, but classroom teachers can provide opportunities to address them in more depth.

English classes provide opportunities for an intensive encounter with the target language for EFL students. Japanese learners of English would benefit greatly from the thorough representation of the sociolinguistic complexity of the English language, including the various uses and users of the language found in different places of the world, in their English textbooks as well as in other components of the EFL curriculum.

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Notes

1. The notion of *native speakers* as providers of standard, normative language has been challenged, as variability exists in what they know about the language, what they can do with the language, and what they consider to be standard. The

notion of *nonnative speaker* is similarly problematic, especially with regards to English, because it fails to acknowledge the differences in the ways English users from the outer and expanding circles use the language and the fact that there are people in the outer circle who grow up speaking English as one of their primary languages (Kachru, 1998; Yano, 2001). While I hesitate to use terms that may reinforce the uncritical and inadequate dichotomy criticized above, I decided to use the term *native speakers* for English users from the inner circle and *nonnative speakers* for those from the outer and expanding circles in order to avoid wordiness when variability within each group is not as crucial in the discussion as the boundary between two groups.

2. Monbusho (Ministry of Education, Sciance, Sports, and Culture) became Monbu-kagaku-sho (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology) after the reorganization of the governmental ministries on January 6, 2001. In this article, I continue to refer to the ministry as Monbusho because that was the ministry that examined and approved these textbooks in 1996.

3. The analysis of contexts and types of English was also conducted by using a smaller unit of analysis: a monologue and a dialogue. Each unit boundary was identified by a change in chapter, its context, and/or participants, and was analyzed in the same ways as described in the methodology section. Because the length of units varied, I also counted the numbers of conversational turns and words in order to make comparison possible. The findings did not vary greatly between the two sets of analysis employing different units of analysis. Since the use of dialogue/monologue as the unit of analysis involves greater variability than the use of pre-existing chapters (because the researcher must identify the unit boundaries), only the results from the analysis that used chapters as the unit of analysis are reported in this paper.

4. Although Hong Kong is not a country, the use of English in Hong Kong illustrates characteristics of the outer circle, which differ significantly from those of English in mainland China, an expanding-circle country (see Bolton, 2000 for further discussion of English in Hong Kong). Therefore, Hong Kong

is classified in this study as "outer-circle" and separately from China.

5. Both quotes were originally in Japanese and have been translated by the author.

6. I do not intend to suggest that Japan is a monolingual country, although Japanese is the dominant language of the society. See Maher and Honna (1994), Matsuda (2000b), and Yamamoto (2000) for discussions of linguistic diversity in Japan.

7. In order to better understand the influence of textbook representations on students' perceptions and attitudes, an empirical study that compares the perceptions of English users and uses held by different groups of students who use different textbooks and that compares the perception and the textbook representation for each group is needed. Furthermore, follow-up studies using the subsequent sets of textbooks would allow a diachronic comparison of language perceptions and attitudes.

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Perspectives

An Algorithmic Approach to Error Correction: Correcting Three Common Errors at Different Levels

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An algorithmic approach to error correction characterized by four main features: pedagogically sound input requiring minimal cognitive effort, proceduralized steps with instructive examples, explicit rules helping learners conceptualize the correction procedure, and reinforcement exercises, is introduced in this article using three well-defined structural anomalies for exemplification: dangling modifiers, missing relative pronouns and the erroneous *there has* structure. The remedial instruction materials have been tried out with students at different proficiency levels and feedback was collected through different channels. Comments from both teachers and students indicate that such an approach is effective, versatile and flexible in helping Hong Kong Chinese ESL learners overcome persistent learning errors.

演算式(algorithmic)の誤り訂正には以下の４つの型—認知的努力が最小で教育的効果のあるインプット、わかりやすい例による手順を追ったステップ、学習者に訂正の過程がわかるような規則の提示、そして練習の強化—があるが、本稿では、上記の誤り訂正法を３つのよく知られた構造的変則例を引きながら説明する。３つとはぶら下がり（懸垂）修飾、関係代名詞の欠如、there has の誤構文である。異なった能力レベルの学生に対し補修指導材料を使用し、フィードバックを様々な方法で収集した。その結果、教師と学生双方から、このよう

な方法が、特に香港の中国系ESL学習者の克服しにくいエラー修正に対して効果があり、多目的に、柔軟性を持って用いることができるとのコメントが寄せられた。

As is well known, error correction is one of the most persistent problems confronted by second and foreign language teachers. Like many of our colleagues, we have frequently been disappointed by the fact that, despite various attempts to make our students aware of recurrent grammatical or structural problems, our students tended to make the same errors again in their language output shortly after corrective feedback was given, suggesting that students failed to internalize the correct model. A substantial body of research in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has shown that learners may or may not notice the errors that they have made (cf. the noticing hypothesis, Schmidt, 1990, 1992), and even if a particular anomalous form has been noticed, the grammatical rule in question is often too abstract and complex to be mastered upon the teacher's corrective feedback. One possible reason is that the learner may have reached a plateau in the L2 learning process suggesting that fossilization has taken place. There may be other relevant factors, such as the degree of complexity of the grammatical phenomenon or phenomena in question, and whether the teacher is able to use relatively jargon-free metalanguage to make explicit fine structural nuances.

Advocates of the hard-core version of the communicative approach to language teaching tend to dismiss error correction for two main reasons: (a) the belief that all attempts to draw learners' attention to formal anomalies would discourage the learner from producing output in L2, which in turn would inhibit acquisition; and (b) the claim that there is no interface between learning (which takes place consciously with explicit instruction) and acquisition (which takes place subconsciously, typically through mere exposure to the target language in natural, meaning-oriented settings) (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985). However, a substantial body of recent research in SLA has shown that focus on form in context (Long, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998) or form-focused instruction in general (Spada, 1997) has great potential for enhancing the learners' language accuracy in their L2 output, thereby accelerating the rate of SLA.

In an attempt to improve the quality of our own remedial instruction,

we experimented with an approach partly inspired by theoretical and empirical studies in consciousness-raising research (Sharwood Smith, 1981; Rutherford, 1987, 1988; Schmidt, 1990); and partly by more recent research on form-focused instruction and explicit corrective feedback (e.g. Doughty & Williams, 1998; Granger & Tribble, 1998), with an aim to explore the pedagogical potential of explicit, form-focused, corrective feedback in the Hong Kong ESL classroom. In our design of remedial instruction materials, we tried to analyze the learning task from the learner's perspective in order to make the remedial input cognitively accessible to even the weakest learners by minimizing the cognitive effort required to proceed from one proceduralized step to the next. We call such an approach an algorithmic approach to error correction (cf. Sharwood Smith, 1981), in the sense that there is a set of rules or procedures that students follow in order to overcome the lexico-grammatical problem in question. In more specific terms, the teaching approach that we have adopted in our materials is characterized by four main features (see Chan & Li, 2002; Li & Chan, 2000, 2001): (a) pedagogically sound input requiring minimal cognitive effort; (b) proceduralized steps supported by instructive examples; (c) explicit rules to help learners conceptualize the correction procedure; and (d) reinforcement exercises.

Such an algorithmic approach to error correction is versatile and flexible in that it can be used for error types of different complexity levels catering to learners at various proficiency levels. The remedial materials thus designed can be used either by teachers in the classroom with or without adaptation depending on the needs of their students, or for self-learning purposes by learners themselves. For this approach to work satisfactorily, however, one prerequisite is that the error type in question must lend itself to effective remedial instruction through a sequence of proceduralized steps. In this article, we will exemplify the algorithmic approach using the materials we designed for three error types at different complexity levels: dangling modifiers, missing relative pronouns, and erroneous ***there has*** structures. For ease of illustration, the correction procedure will be structured in different phases, with each phase focusing on one specific teaching goal and indicating what the teacher should or may do to help students overcome the error and progressively approximate the target structure.

Advanced Level: Dangling Modifiers

Nature and Causes of Problem

Many advanced ESL learners have problems writing complex sentences involving a non-finite clause with no overt subject. The problem of *dangling modifiers* often results, as in the following two examples:

1.* Entering the stadium, *the size of the crowd* surprised John.

2.* Having eaten our lunch, *the ship* departed.

The core of the problem lies in the fact that the subject of the main clause cannot be interpreted as the subject of the subordinate clause/ non-finite clause. Inadequate knowledge of the correct usage of the target structure is probably the only cause of this problem. Students are unaware that the subject of the main clause (e.g., 'the size of the crowd' in sentence 1, or 'the ship' in sentence 2) has to be the same as the implicit subject of the subordinate clause/non-finite clause (e.g., "entering the stadium" in sentence 1, and "having eaten our lunch" in sentence 2).

Correcting the Problem

Phase One: Illustrate The Correct Use of the Structure with Correct Examples

1. Look at the following sentences:

   (i) Entering the room, we turned on the light.

   |_____A_____| |_____B_____|

   (ii) Walking along the streets, John met Mary.

   |_____A_____| |_____B_____|

2. What is the subject of B in sentence (i)? Circle it.

3. Is there a subject in A?

4 But do we know who *entered the room*? Who?

5. Compare the persons who entered the room and the subject of B. What do you notice? Are they the same persons or different persons?

6. Look at sentence (ii) now. What is the subject of B? Circle it.
7. Who *walked along the streets*?
8. Again, compare the person who walked along the streets with the subject of B. Are they the same?

Phase Two: Introduce the Rule

9. In a complex sentence with two clauses, if the first clause (A) does not have a subject, the subject of the second clause (B) will be interpreted as its subject.

Missing Subject of A (subordinate clause) = Subject of B (main clause)

Phase Three: Help Students Notice the Core of the Error

10. Now let us look at sentence (iii) below. It has a similar structure to sentences (i) and (ii).

    (iii) Entering the stadium, the size of the crowd surprised John.

    |_____A_____| |_____B_____|

11. What is the subject of B?
12. Can *the size of the crowd* be used as the subject of A?

Phase Four: Highlight the Nature of the Problem

13. Sentence (iii) is wrong because the missing subject of A ≠ the subject of B.

Phase Five: Help Students Correct The Sentence by Supplying the Appropriate Subject

14. So who entered the stadium?
15. Look at the rule in step 9 above.

    What should be the subject of the second clause?

16. Rewrite B by changing the subject to John.

    (iv) Entering the stadium, John _____.

Phase Six: Reinforce the Correct Usage by Using Other Examples

Phase Seven: Reinforcement Exercises

Intermediate Level: Missing Relative Pronouns in Relative Clauses

Nature and Causes of Problem

Another common error associated with the formation of complex sentences that ESL learners often make is the omission of a suitable relative pronoun in a relative clause as in the following two examples:

3.* I remembered the accident *happened* yesterday.

4.* There were altogether ten parents *participated* in the interview.

This error can be attributed to mother-tongue influence. In Chinese/Cantonese, the mother tongue of most of the students in Hong Kong, there is no distinction between finite and non-finite verbs, and serial verb constructions with more than one verb/verb phrase juxtaposed in the same construction without having any markers to show the relationship between them are perfectly acceptable and very common. What complicates the situation is that the Chinese/Cantonese sentences corresponding to sentences 3 and 4 do not require a relative clause structure or a relative pronoun (see sentences 5 and 6 below). It is thus not surprising for Chinese ESL learners to write English sentences with a chain of finite verbs. Here are two examples:

5. ngo5 gei3 dak1 ji3 ngoi6 si6 zok3 tin1 faat3 sang1 dik1[1]

   I remember accident is yesterday happen PRT[2]

6. zung2 gung6 jau5 sap6 ming4 gaa1 zoeng2 zip3 sau6 fong2 man6

   total has ten CL[3] parents receive interview

Apart from L1-related factors, the allowance of a seemingly similar structure in English also contributes to L2 learners' misunderstanding of the correct usage. Sentences such as 7 and 8 below, containing a reduced relative clause with the relative pronoun and the finite verb omitted, may

cause confusion. Learners who are unaware of the differences between the acceptable reduced relative structure and the erroneous sentences may incorrectly apply the rule of omission of relative pronouns. Here are two example sentences:

7. I like her book published last year.
8. I have seen some of the parents interviewed.

Correcting the Problem

Phase One: Help Students Notice the Error

1. Are the following sentences correct?

   Make a "✓"if you think so, and a "✖" if you don't think so.

_____ (i) Mary likes John's book published last year.

_____ (ii) I met two parents attended the interview yesterday.

_____ (iii) I remember the accident happened yesterday.

_____ (iv) We note from the reports appeared at the front page of the SCMP.

_____ (v) There were altogether twenty students took the test.

Phase Two: Explain the Acceptability of the Grammatical Sentences by Highlighting the Voice of the Verb Concerned (Whether it is in Active or Passive Voice)

2. Compare sentences (i) and (ii).

   (i) ✓ Mary likes John's book published last year.

   (ii) ✖ I met two parents attended the interview yesterday.

3. Look at sentence (i). What does *Mary* like?
4. What happened to *John's book* last year?
5. Note the correct pattern.

   ✖ *John's book published last year.*

   ✓ *John's book was published last year.*

6. Rewrite sentence (i) into two simple sentences, A and B.

_____A_____ _____B_____

7. Circle the noun phrase which is found in both A and B.

8. Since *John's book* is found in both A and B, we can turn B into a relative clause. Which relative pronoun (e.g., *which, who, whom, whose, that*) can we use?

9. Combine A and B using the relative pronoun suggested.

10. Observe: Is the verb *published* in the active or passive voice?

11. What is the form of the verb *published*? Is it a present tense verb, a past tense verb, a present participle, or a past participle?

Phase Three: Make Explicit the Context Where Relative Pronouns Can Be Omitted

12. Since *published* is a participle, the subject relative pronoun and the verb *to be* can be deleted. Here is an example:

(vi) ✓ [I like her book] [~~which was~~ published last year.]

A B

In a complex sentence [... VERB ... VERB ...]

A B

If B is a relative clause and the VERB in B = PARTICIPLE

Then Subject relative pronoun and VERB *TO BE* can be deleted

Phase Four: Explain the Unacceptability of the Ungrammatical Sentences

13. Now, look again at sentence (ii). Who did *I* meet yesterday?

14. What did the *two parents* do?

15. Which is correct?

    Two parents attended the interview; or
    Two parents were attended the interview.

16. Rewrite sentence (ii) to form two simple sentences, A and B.

    _____A_____ _____B_____

17. Circle the noun phrase that is found in both A and B.

18. Replace the noun phrase in B by a suitable relative pronoun. (e.g., *who, which, etc.)*

19. Combine A and B using the relative pronoun suggested.

20. Observe: Is the verb *attended* in the active or passive voice?

21. What is the form of the verb *attended*? Is it a present tense verb, a past tense verb, a present participle, or a past participle?

Phase Five: Spell Out the Context Where a Relative Pronoun Must Be Used

22. Since *attended* is not a participle, the subject relative pronoun cannot be deleted.

    In a sentence [... VERB ... VERB ...]

    A B

    If B is a relative clause and Verb in B ≠ PARTICIPLE

    Then a relative pronoun must be used

    (vii) ✓ [I met two parents] [who attended the interview yesterday].

    (viii) ✗ [I met two parents] [attended the interview yesterday].

Phase Six: Introduce Alternative Ways of Combining Clauses

23. Following the first rule in step 12, we can rewrite sentence (viii) by changing the verb in B to an *-ing* participle. The subject relative pronoun can be deleted.

Here is an example:

(ix) ✓ [I met two parents] [attending the interview yesterday].

Phase Seven: Reinforcement Exercises

Elementary Level: the Erroneous 'There has' Structure

Nature and Causes of Problem

As far as elementary ESL students in Hong Kong are concerned, the mistaken construction of the 'there be' structure is one of the most common problems that occurs. The verb HAVE is often misused in place of the verb to BE to express the existential or presentative function, as in the following:

9.* There *has* a book on the table.

10.* There *have* many computers in the room.

The probable causes of this structural problem are both L1 and L2 related. First, the corresponding existential meaning in Chinese/ Cantonese is expressed using *jau5 'have'*, rather than the verb to BE as used in English. Here is an example:

11. maa5 lou6 soeng6 jau5 han2 do1 ce1

road above has many cars

Second, the dummy subject 'there' in a 'there BE' sentence is often mistakenly regarded as syntactically and semantically equivalent to the Cantonese sentence-initial adverb *go2 dou6 '(the demonstrative) there'* (as in example 12). This, coupled with the misuse of 'have' to mean the existential *yau5* in Chinese, results in the erroneous 'there has/have' structure as in sentences 9 and 10.

12. go2 dou6 jau5 hou2 do1 jan4

there has many people

Negative transfer from L1 is not necessarily the only reason that may account for students' problems with the structure. Students' inadequate mastery of the different forms of the verb to BE in the target language may also contribute to the error. As the perfect forms 'have been' and 'has been' of the verb to BE are morphologically similar to the verb HAVE, probable confusion due to such acceptable structures as sentences 13 and 14 may also lead to the anomaly.

13. There ***have been*** a lot of visitors in Hong Kong.
14. There ***has been*** a dog sleeping there.

Correcting the Problem

Phase One: Alert Students to the Constituents of the Target Structure

1. (T shows a picture.) Look at the picture. What is on the tree?

   (i) A bird is on the tree.

2. Sentence (i) tells us that *[something] IS/ARE [somewhere]*. But to say that *[something] IS/ARE [somewhere]*, you can also say There BE [something] [somewhere].

   [something] IS/ARE [somewhere] →
   There BE [something] [somewhere]

3. What is *something* in sentence (i)?
4. What is *somewhere* in sentence (i)?
5. Now, rewrite sentence (i) using the *There BE* structure shown above.

Phase Two: Consolidate Students' Understanding by Comparing the Target Structure with a Familiar Structure

6. Now compare sentence (i) with the rewritten sentence.

(ii)	There BE	a bird		on the tree.
(i)		A bird	is	on the tree.

7. We can't use *BE* as the verb of the sentence. Cross out *BE* and move the verb *is* to the position after *There*.
8. Now, can you answer the question again: What is on the tree?

Phase Three: Reinforce Students' Understanding by Using Other Examples

9. Let us look at another picture (two pictures hanging on the wall): What are on the wall?

   (iii) _____ are _____

   something somewhere

10. What is *something* in sentence (iii)?
11. What is *somewhere* in sentence (iii)?
12. Following the rule in step 2 above, rewrite sentence (iii).
13. Again compare sentence (iii) with the rewritten sentence.

    (iv) There BE two pictures on the wall.

    (iii) Two pictures are on the wall.

    ↑_____↑

14. We can't use *BE* as the verb of the sentence. Cross out *BE* and move the verb *are* to the position after *There*.
15. Now can you answer the question again: What are on the wall?

Phase Four: Help Students Notice the Nature of the Erroneous Structure

16. Now look at the following sentence. What's wrong with it?

    (v) ▯ There has a book on the table.

17. What is *something* in sentence (v)?
18. What is *somewhere* in sentence (v)?
19. Can we say *A book has on the table*?

Phase Five: Highlight the Nature of the Problem

20. Since we can't say *A book has on the table*, we can't say *There has a book on the table*.

    ×[something] has [somewhere] →
    × There HAS [something][somewhere]

Phase Six: Reinforcement Exercises with and without Contrastive Examples

Teachers' and Students' Responses to the Materials

Dangling modifiers, missing relative pronouns and erroneous *there-has* structures, are all morpho-syntactically well-defined error types, which lend themselves very well to error correction through the algorithmic approach. These three sets of materials, together with those designed for ten other error types such as resumptive pronouns and faulty parallelism, have been tried out in an ongoing research project, which involves six secondary and tertiary teachers who used the materials in class with their students (over 200 in total), as well as a number of tertiary students (21 in total), who used the materials in a self-learning mode. Feedback on the materials was collected through focus-group meetings with teachers, post-teaching protocols filled out by participating teachers, and self-access evaluation forms filled out by students. In this section, we will briefly examine their responses.

The participating teachers found the materials effective, in that their students became better aware of the problems in the erroneous structures and hence were able to correct them. They also reported that their use of the taught items improved, and the materials helped them gain concrete grammar knowledge. Comments given in the self-access evaluation forms filled out by the students who used the materials in a self-learning mode, also reflected that the materials helped them see the gist of the problems in the erroneous structures as they corrected the errors.

Responses to the user-friendliness features of the materials were on the whole positive. The teachers found the proceduralized correction steps and the rules provided in the materials straightforward and clear enough to help students see and rectify the erroneous structures. The students were also able to follow the materials with little difficulty.

Most of the students who used the materials in a self-learning mode commented on the self-evaluation forms that the materials were clearly written and easy to follow, with the majority of them being able to finish the steps within 30 minutes.

Conclusion and Adaptation

In this article, we have demonstrated how an algorithmic approach to error correction can help learners at different proficiency levels overcome persistent, common English errors. Our experience suggests that, by virtue of the design features of the materials, the more structured

the individual steps, the more likely that the approach will work. For more complex errors such as the dangling modifier problem, some use of grammatical jargon (e.g., *main clause, subordinate clause*) is inevitable if students are to master the subtle differences between the normative structures and the anomalies; yet for less sophisticated problems, technical terms should better be avoided. The algorithmic approach to error correction suggested here has received some empirical support, showing that it is effective, versatile and flexible with Hong Kong Chinese learners (Chan & Li, 2002; Li & Chan, 2000, 2001). It is our belief that properly administered, this approach will also work well with learners from other L1 backgrounds.

As might have been observed, some of the steps in the materials exemplified may appear to be rather redundant and repetitive. However, we need to emphasize that the repetitiveness is intended as part of the consciousness-raising approach we adopted. Since the materials target relatively weak students, extra guidance realized in explicitness and repetition is necessary to help students with the (re-)discovery of the rules. It is through explicitness that we raise students' consciousness of the tacit rules and through repetitions that we reinforce this consciousness. Having said this, we do not mean that repetitions are necessary all the time, nor do we imply that teachers need to follow every single step before students can arrive at satisfactory learning of the items. Rather, teachers are encouraged to adjust the steps based on their own knowledge of their students' proficiency and ability. At junctions where students' responses deviate from the expected "answers" to the leading questions, adaptations such as reformulating and re-ordering of the questions/steps are particularly essential.

The techniques suggested in this article, though pedagogically sound, are not meant to be exhaustive. They may not be useful for all sentences related to the error type in question and may have some lexical, contextual or structural constraints. Take the missing relative pronoun problem as an example. The technique proposed may not work well with all types of nouns and all types of verbs. Sentences with inanimate nouns such as **I found two books fell on the floor* may not be corrected as easily as sentences with animate nouns such as the ones used in the remedial instruction materials (e.g., **I met two parents attended the interview yesterday*). Another constraint is that since the materials were designed primarily to help students notice the correct use of sentences which contain a noun phrase with a relative clause as its post-modifier (either finite with an overt relative pronoun, or non-finite with no

relative pronoun) (e.g., I met *two parents who attended the interview yesterday* / I met *two parents attending the interview yesterday*). Sentences whose surface structures bear resemblance to the erroneous structure but which do not contain such post-modification (e.g., I remembered *you beat me yesterday*) do not fit the evaluation metric suggested and hence are not targeted here. The subtlety of the varying degree of acceptability of sentences with unattached clauses is also an issue not addressed in our materials. Though sentences with dangling modifiers such as 1 and 2 are regarded as anomalous, other similar ones like *To apply for the post, an application form must be submitted* are less objectionable and may be acceptable to many native speakers of English. As the principal aim of our remedial instruction materials is to help students identify the nature of the anomalies and formulate a rule which governs the proper use of the structures, whether and when these subtleties should be brought to discussion is left to the discretion of the teacher. It is suggested that teachers take any form of adaptation needed to prevent learners from drawing erroneous conclusions.

Acknowledgments

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Notes

1. Numbers represent tones (phonemic in Cantonese).
2. PRT is the abbreviation for Chinese sentence particles.
3. CL is the abbreviation for Chinese Classifiers such as *ming4*, *go3*.

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Reviews

Teachers' Voices 7: Teaching Vocabulary. **Anne Burns & Helen de Silva Joyce (Eds.). Sydney, Australia: Macquarie University, 2001. 132 pp.**

Reviewed by
Keiko Sakui
University of Auckland, New Zealand

Teachers' voices 7: Teaching vocabulary is the seventh publication in a series of edited volumes reporting action research studies. The studies were conducted by teachers who are teaching English in Australia for the Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP) under the National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.

As the editors contend, many teachers would not argue against the importance of vocabulary instruction in language teaching practice. The research on vocabulary teaching and learning has begun to gain its fair share of attention recently, and this publication is timely in reflecting the growing interest in vocabulary research and instruction.

In the introduction, the editors provide background information on how the project on vocabulary teaching emerged, together with a brief overview of recent research and theory development on vocabulary acquisition and teaching. The overview summarises the complexity of the area of knowledge in a concise manner. This information also orients readers to the type of training the action researcher-teachers received before they undertook this project.

The main chapters of the book consist of four sections on vocabulary teaching: 1) different learner levels, 2) how to incorporate vocabulary instruction throughout the curriculum, 3) various teaching techniques, and 4) teaching idioms. Each section includes several action research studies conducted by a teacher-researcher. There are 19 such studies in total. The research themes include a wide range of topics, such as vocabulary development with a post-beginner class, a thematic approach to teaching vocabulary, the development of ESP vocabulary, the use of TV and dictionaries as learning tools, and exploring idiom usage.

Employing action research procedures, each study is guided by specific questions teachers formulated in teaching vocabulary in

their classrooms or programs. There is also a description on how and why each teacher was motivated to carry out action research. Every study provides detailed contextual information including class size, students' demographic information, such as nationality and educational background, as well as characteristics such as motivation and language level. The teachers describe their teaching techniques/lessons, written in a clear manner, in order to give readers a better understanding of the actual instruction. This description is followed by their evaluations and reflections. Evaluation methods include both objective (test scores, questionnaires) and subjective (teachers' impressions) measures.

The applications of the book are manifold. One use is as a practical resource book for teacher-researchers who are interested in carrying out their own action research. The large-scale, program-wide action research projects, as well as individual studies serve as a useful guide for researchers interested in different research scopes. Another use is as a resource book for vocabulary teaching. Studies in the book address various aspects of vocabulary teaching and adopt different approaches for a wide range of students. Some authors have included copy-ready materials for teacher use.

The editors argue that some of the teaching practices introduced in the book might not transfer seamlessly to other teaching contexts. From this perspective, some language teachers working in other contexts or with different types of learners might question the applicability of action research carried out with students in Australia. However, the depth of description of each teaching context and voices of the teachers provide readers with a detailed view of these teachers' teaching situations, how they evaluated their success, and how they might make improvements. For teachers, the information needed is not only about new teaching techniques, but also about reasons for implementing a certain task and its effectiveness. Then we can make our own professional judgment on how it might transfer to our own classrooms.

This echoes a recent movement in teacher research, which views the teacher as an active agent, rather than a mere transmitter of subject knowledge and teaching techniques. Studies on teacher development increasingly call for an ecological understanding of teaching and learning (Wideen, Mayer-Smith & Moon, 1998), and value reflective teaching as a means to further teaching expertise (Schön, 1983). After reading the detailed accounts of each specific context of the studies introduced in this book, readers will be better able to reflect, re-examine, and expand their own teaching of vocabulary.

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***Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning*. Phil Benson. Harlow, England: Longman, 2001. 260 pp**

Reviewed by
Mika Maruyama
Independent Translator
Joseph Falout
Nihon University

Originating as a focus of attention more than three decades ago, autonomy in language learning has evolved from its conceptions to become part of the mainstream of language teaching methodology. In *Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning*, Phil Benson (2001) ties these formerly marginalized and disparate theories and practices into a cohesive map, an inviting formation where either browsing or serious contemplation are available options for the language researcher. Because of its clear, comprehensive coverage and introduction of up-to-date work, this text is most suitable for, though would not be exclusive to, readers entering the field. More advanced researchers would also benefit, as the text is a good summary which pulls together the field's diverse sources and influences.

Packaged into manageable sections and subsections, the themes are further punctuated by side-bar-type critical quotes, concepts, and titles for recommended reading. Although these expressive boxes often encumber the flow of the text's prose, they usefully highlight points for ready referencing and quick comprehension. A separate section in the back lists a variety of useful resources for research and practical use in classrooms, such as journals and newsletters, websites, and professional associations, including JALT's Learner Development Special Interest Group. All in all, this assortment is easily digestible and definitely inspiring.

The first section elaborates the history of autonomy's conceptual changes in political, psychological, and educational fields. Not afraid to assert himself, Benson maintains that in order to study autonomy as a subject, one must nail down slippery definitions and hold to an observable, measurable manifestation. By defining autonomy as "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (p. 47), Benson claims that it becomes identifiable and measurable.

Apart from theoretical agendas, questions have been raised as to whether the promotion of autonomy inadvertently administers culturally inappropriate and insensitive values in the foreign language classroom. Originating in Europe, and discussed mainly in a European context, autonomy now steps into a wider framework as it spreads worldwide. Citing Aoki and Smith who assert that autonomy "is not an approach enforcing a particular way of learning," Benson concludes that it is "culturally legitimate" in that "autonomous learners are the most able to contribute to [their own] cultural development and transformation" (p. 57).

In the second section, Benson outlines and develops six different approaches which foster autonomy: resource-based, technology-based, learner-based, classroom-based, curriculum-based, and teacher-based approaches. Argument is made for the inherent efficacy and type of control emphasized in relation to each approach. This is not to say that one approach is superior to another, but that, naturally, an integration of approaches best relates to personal classroom practice. This section may be helpful for teachers, learners and researchers to identify their current methodologies, and may inform them of other potential practices.

In the last section, suggestions for future research are described, including details about current research and difficulties. One area needing further investigation is the correlation between the degree of autonomy and language proficiency level. Benson asserts that there is no hard evidence proving a direct correlation between the two, although greater autonomy has generally been considered to lead to greater proficiency in language learning itself.

Included in the research section are also summaries of six case studies conducted around the world. The most exciting one was done in Hong Kong by Shirley Yap who investigated her students' out-of-class language learning activities. While many of us may not have heard of any study on autonomous language learning outside the classroom, this original and thought-provoking work embarks upon an investigation into the true unknown, and, these reviewers hope, heralds a new research front.

The best part about Benson's book is that it is a lucid, easy read, drawing from a wide perspective and offering a solid history on its topic. The drawback would be that this format allows for little depth in the particulars as it quickly skips ahead to the next part. For the practitioner wishing to combine research with teaching, this book provides helpful references and jumping-off points. The seasoned expert, however, may choose to pass. Yet, as it is more of a map of the field, it may be refreshing for those who wish to get out of the trees and take a look at the forest.

Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching (Second Edition). **Jack C. Richards & Theodore S. Rodgers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001. 270 pp.**

Reviewed by
Thomas C. Anderson
Aoyama Gakuin University

TESOL educators face many issues when developing and putting into practice effective curricula and lessons. The issues not only concern WHAT to teach, but also HOW to teach. Richards and Rodgers, quoting Lange (1990, p. 253) point out that "foreign language teacher development...has a basic orientation to methods of teaching. Unfortunately, the latest bandwagon 'methodologies' come into prominence without much study or understanding, particularly those that are supported by a particular 'guru'" (p. 15).

It is with this in mind that the authors have updated their 1986 classic, reducing the space given to less mainstream methods and providing analyses of new approaches, methods, and developments in language teaching in the late twentieth century and into the new millennium. They attempt to give a balanced historical view of language teaching and the events and forces that have shaped it over the years.

The first part of the book, "Major Language Trends In Twentieth-Century Language Teaching," begins with an historical overview of language teaching from the seventeenth century up to the present. The authors believe that a study of past and present teaching methods is important for three reasons:

> The study of approaches and methods provides teachers with a view of how the field of language teaching has evolved. Ap-

> proaches and methods can be studied not as a prescription for how to teach but as a source of well-used practices, which teachers can adapt or implement based on their own needs. Experience in using different teaching approaches and methods can provide teachers with basic teaching skills that they can later add to or supplement as they develop teaching experience. (p.16)

Following this historical overview, the authors outline and describe in detail a model, which shows the three elements (approach, design, and methods) and sub-elements, which make up a method. Richards and Rodgers use their model throughout the rest of the book to analyze various methods that have come into vogue over the years. By doing this, they give the teaching professional examples of how the model can be used to evaluate any teaching method.

In the second part of the book, Richards and Rodgers examine various approaches that emerged after a major paradigm shift in language teaching towards a more communicative style of teaching and learning. These approaches either developed outside mainstream language teaching or represent an application of educational principles generated elsewhere. Total Physical Response, The Silent Way, and Counseling Learning are examples of the former, while Neurolinguistic Programming and Multiple Intelligences are examples of the latter.

In the final part, the writers focus on the approaches and methods of the communicative era, beginning in the late 1980s. These include Communicative Language Teaching, The Natural Approach, Content-Based Teaching, and Task-Based Language Teaching. The authors conclude with a reflection on the various methods and criticisms directed towards each approach, as well as with a discussion of possible future developments in language teaching.

Overall, the authors succeed very well in accomplishing what they set out to do. Their model provides readers with a framework by which they can analyze and compare various methods. Using this framework can help the readers make an informed choice and thus avoid the reinventing of the wheel, which tends to happen when gurus are followed blindly. This book would be a good choice for students beginning a Master's degree program, for example, because of the Bibliography and Further Reading list at the end of each chapter, as well as for veteran teachers wishing to become more informed about developments in language teaching. It would also be an appropriate choice for staff rooms or personal libraries.

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Historical Linguistics. Herbert Schendl. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2001. xi + 130 pp.

Reviewed by
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This slim volume is one of the latest in the *Oxford Introductions to Language Studies* series. The series is edited by H.G. Widdowson, and the writer of this book, Herbert Schendl, is Professor of English Linguistics at the University of Vienna. The book surveys different theories and methodologies, and explains past and present trends in the subject, such as recent influences from neo-Darwinian evolutionary thought. The sections on readings and references give well-focused reviews of major works in the field and are invaluable for newcomers.

Historical linguistics has been an academic topic for over two hundred years in the west, and investigates the history of languages: why and how they change; the prehistory of languages; and the continuing changes. For any language these are engrossing issues – and some linguists may spend their career studying one section of one language. An example given of grammatical change is the case of a village in India (Kupwar), where the inhabitants grow up speaking three languages (Urdu, Marathi, and Kannada). While the vocabularies have remained distinct, the grammars have become almost identical. Schendl gives no further information but, using the Internet, I was able to track down references to the village, and found the study fascinating.

Although language change usually occurs unintentionally, it can also be the result of planning. Schendl discusses this with regard to Indonesia after its war of independence from the Netherlands and how the government successfully introduced a standardized version of Bahasa Indonesia. Sometimes such planning is not so successful, as in the Republic of Ireland, and sometimes the result is undetermined, such as with the Maori language in New Zealand.

One might worry that a book on such a theoretical subject would be a touch abstruse and technical, or, on the other hand, considering the notebook size, think it a narrative version of *Cliff Notes*. In fact, it pares down and makes comprehensible this complex subject. Schendl's writing is generally understandable, but there are times when brevity comes at the expense of clarity. Take this sentence in the first paragraph of Chapter 1. "Linguistic changes tend to be the result of two equivalent forms coexisting as variants for some time, and one giving way to the other" (p. 3). I had to read this twice before understanding that in any language there might be two words, for example, with the same meaning, both being used until eventually one of the words becomes more popular and finally displaces the other. This seems simple enough, common sense even, and an outcome of the book is that it shows how much of the theory of historical linguistics rests on basic principles. The book does what it is meant to do—give a "broad map" of the area, as Widdowson states in his preface. It is useful for students who are about to embark on a serious study of the field and also for anyone who only needs an outline. I finished the book feeling that I would have liked more on most topics, no doubt a sign of interest stimulated by the writing.

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JALT Journal, the refereed research journal of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (*Zenkoku Gogaku Kyoiku Gakkai*), invites practical and theoretical articles and research reports on second/foreign language teaching and learning in Japanese and Asian contexts. Submissions from other international contexts are accepted if applicable to language teaching in Japan. Areas of particular interest are:

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JALT Journalでは日本語で執筆された論文、研究報告、実践報告、書評等を募集しています。

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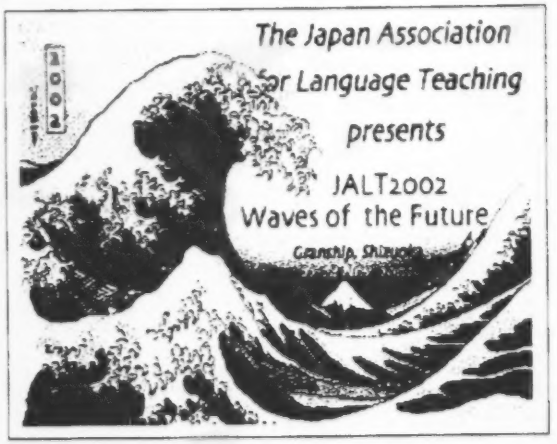

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